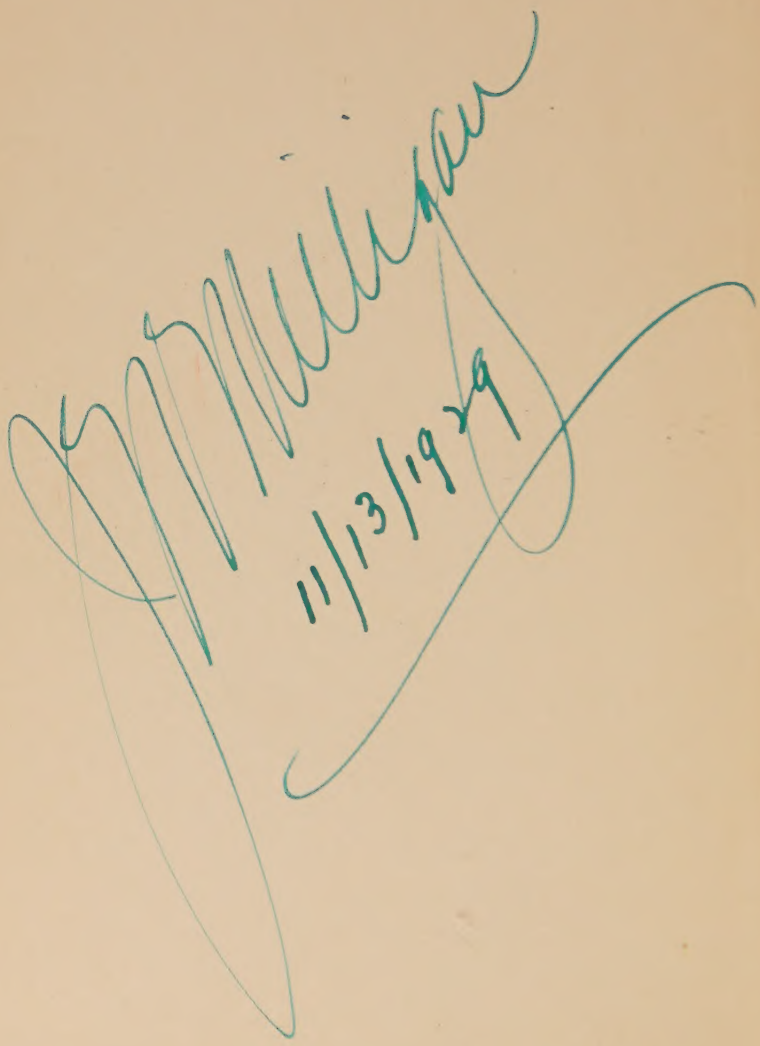

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# INFLUENCING MEN IN BUSINESS

## The Psychology of Argument and Suggestion


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THE AUTHOR RESPECTFULLY DEDICATES THIS CONTRIBUTION TO THE PSYCHOLOGY OF BUSINESS TO THE

YOUNG BUSINESS MAN

WHOSE INTEREST IS IN INFLUENCING MEN RATHER THAN IN HANDLING THINGS; AND WHO IS STUDYING TO MAKE HIS ARGUMENTS MORE CONVINCING AND HIS SUGGESTIONS MORE COERCIVE.

# PREFACE

Everyone in business or professional life has to deal with other people, to win them, to persuade them. Those who have been most successful have understood the principles of psychology, though they may never have formulated them definitely. The aim of this book, when first published seventeen years ago, was to explain these principles as they apply particularly to selling and advertising, in a form which anyone could understand and use.

During the momentous years since the last revision of the book much has been learned about this subject both in the psychological laboratory and in the experience of the business world, but the demand for this volume as a concise and simple statement of principles has steadily continued. In the present revision, for which I am indebted to my colleague, Dr. Delton T. Howard, Associate Professor of Psychology and Director of Personnel, Northwestern University, the discussion of the old book has been developed and further applied in accordance with our present knowledge.

WALTER DILL SCOTT

Evanston, Illinois,
May 12, 1928.

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# CHAPTER I

# INTRODUCTORY

OUTLINE

I. Success in Business is Largely Dependent upon Ability to Influence Men
II. To Explain How Men are Influenced is a Problem for Psychology
III. Types of Business Problems for Psychological Solution
IV. Some Men Seek to Influence Others by Appeals to Reason
V. Some Men Seek to Influence Others by Suggestion, Which is a More Subtle Force than Reason
VI. All Methods of Influencing Men may be Classified Either as Argument or Suggestion

# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTORY

### I. Success in Business is Largely Dependent upon Ability to Influence Men

There have been many remarkable developments in the business world in the course of the past few decades. Business methods,—methods of production, handling, distribution and sales,—have been revolutionized. Civilization has greatly profited by these advances. At the period when this book is written America finds herself in an era of unprecedented prosperity. Never in history has man dealt so effectually with material nature, and never has business organization, upon the whole, been so efficient or so well equipped.

Everybody agrees that human nature is more difficult to control than material nature. We understand physical things ever so much better than our ancestors, but have made no corresponding advance in our understanding of men. It is possible today to find twenty men who are expert in the mysteries of industrial craftsmanship where scarcely one can be found who is even passably skillful in dealing with the personnel of industry. Hence, modern business puts a premium upon the ability to handle men; the ability to understand, to direct, to influence men. Expertness in influencing men is an acquired ability, not a natural endowment, and largely depends upon knowledge and practice.

## II. To Explain How Men are Influenced is a Problem for Psychology

Business has been greatly aided, in a material way, by the physical sciences and by the science of economics. Men have learned how to handle Nature's forces and materials; how to utilize tools and equipment; how to manufacture, preserve, and transport goods. Science has made possible the development of the automobile and facilitated its mass production. Science has greatly improved our means of communication. The technical arts have provided ingenious devices for carrying on business on a large scale. But science has been backward in supplying a similarly useful knowledge of human nature. The greatest business problems of our day have to do with the personnel of industry and the arts of guiding and influencing men in the achievement of business aims.

Various kinds of technical schools provide young men with knowledge of a kind that is necessary in dealing with material things, and with the technical organization of industry. Schools of chemistry, mineralogy, commerce, agriculture, and engineering provide a knowledge of the material factors in industry. These schools found their teachings on science. Similarly, if a knowledge of human nature is to be acquired, it must be based on science; the science of psychology. It is this science alone that treats of the thoughts, impulses, acts, and emotions of men. The student who would like to learn the art of influencing men in business must begin with psychology, which is to this art what physics and chemistry are to engineering.

Psychology is a new and incomplete science. We are

only beginning to understand its practical uses. But it is the only science that can give us any sound information about human nature. A number of psychological principles have been worked out which can be applied to the practical problems of business practice. This book presents some of the established principles of the science and shows how they apply to the problem of influencing men in business.

### III. Types of Business Problems for Psychological Solution

Many of the human problems of the business world are of the highest consequence in the conduct of industry. Success or failure will often depend upon ability to recruit a strong staff, to secure efficient work from employees, to make effective sales talks or to write advertisements that produce results. Psychology is of assistance in the solution of the difficulties that appear in such activities. Let us note four typical business problems that call for psychological solution. They may be kept in mind in the discussion that follows.

1. How can I induce my employees to increase the quantity and improve the quality of their work?
2. How can I induce particular men to enter my employ?
3. How can I sell my line of goods by personal appeal?
4. How can I induce you to purchase this same line of goods if I confine my selling plan to printed advertising?

These typical problems have one feature in common:

all involve the contact of mind with mind, and center about the effective transmission of ideas, impressions, and enthusiasms from person to person. Psychology can provide us with information about the mental processes involved in such contacts. It can give us information about what goes on in men's minds as they comprehend and respond to propositions made to them by others.

### IV. Some Men Seek to Influence Others by Appeals to Reason

Some business leaders who have been successful in handling men will assert that our four typical problems, and others like them, are already solved. One can influence others most strongly, they will say, by having respect for their powers of judgment and reasoning. Employees can be induced to improve their work by showing them, point by point, by means of reasoned argument, just what advantages will accrue to them through increased production. In inducing men to enter their employ, they present the advantages to be gained in a consecutive and well-reasoned argument. In selling goods they analyze their propositions and set forth their points of superiority one by one, in a logical and climactic order. In writing advertisements they use "reason-why" copy, in which an attempt is made to have the reader comprehend the actual "reasons why" their article is most desirable. Many business men firmly believe that the only sure way to influence others is to demonstrate to them, step by step, the superior merits of the proposition advanced.

### V. Some Men Seek to Influence Others by Suggestion, Which is a More Subtle Force than Reasoning

Some business leaders, highly successful, almost never employ arguments in dealing with others. Their success depends, they believe, upon a force more subtle and direct. They will grant that it is possible to reason with men and may concede that, theoretically, argumentation is the ideal method. But in practice they find that many men do not care for logical arguments or are difficult to move by reasoning. In securing improved services from their employees such men use suggestion rather than argument. They appeal directly to the "subconscious" impulses of men, and avoid the indirect appeal to the intellect. They touch men's desires, impulses, enthusiasms, and thus secure immediate responses. Suggestion, they believe, acts directly upon the springs of action, and induces positive and immediate results. The appeal to reason, they believe, will on the contrary often produce a state of doubt or suspense that is difficult to overcome.

### VI. All Methods of Influencing Men may be Classified Either as Argument or Suggestion

Psychology must be appealed to in order to settle the controversy respecting these two methods of influencing men. Is argument always to be preferred to suggestion, or is suggestion always superior to argument? Or are both methods effective when employed under the right conditions? We must understand what kind of mental processes a man goes through in reasoning, and what occurs in the mind of a person who entertains a suggestion. It will be helpful to analyze the

mental activities involved in each case. When this is done, it will be possible to decide which method is best; or, if each is effective in its place, it will be possible to decide when the one or the other is to be used.

# CHAPTER II

# AN ANALYSIS OF DELIBERATION

OUTLINE

Deliberation Results from the Presentation of Arguments or Reasons

A Typical Act of Deliberation Consists of:

I. An Idea of Two or More Diverse Things or Propositions Only One of Which May Be Chosen
II. An Idea of the Steps Necessary to Secure the Things or Propositions
III. A Feeling of Value Attaching to Each of the Things or Propositions
IV. A Comparison of Relative Values
V. A Conviction and Execution

# CHAPTER II

## AN ANALYSIS OF DELIBERATION

### Deliberation Results from the Presentation of Arguments or Reasons

It has been suggested that we do not always deliberate, but only on occasion. Ordinarily our responses to things are direct and unreflective. We sit down in the inviting chair, smile in response to the smile of a friend, go in to dinner when the gong sounds; all without hesitation or without pausing to consider the *pros* and *cons* of the act. Now and then, however, we do hesitate about sitting down, and consider whether it is the right thing to do. Under certain circumstances we cease our direct responses and take time to wonder what it would be best to do, or what choice, under the conditions, ought to be made. When do we deliberate? And why? These questions can best be answered after we have studied the act of deliberation, and learned how it operates and what it leads to. In the following analysis of the results of an argument it is assumed that the argument is good and that the man appealed to is caused to consider or to deliberate. What does the man do when he deliberates? What do you do when you deliberate? What kind of an action is it, and what does it involve?

The analysis will be more concrete and definite if we ask, having in mind our four typical problems:

What do you do—

1. When you deliberate as to whether you will change your method of work?
2. When you are deliberating as to whether you shall accept or reject a proffered change of position?
3. When you are deliberating as to whether you shall purchase or reject the goods offered by a salesman?
4. When you are debating as to whether you shall respond to an advertisement?

Let us consider what these typical acts of deliberation involve.

### A Typical Act of Deliberation Consists of:

### I. An Idea of Two or More Diverse Things or Propositions Only One of Which May be Chosen

Suppose that I am attempting to induce you to change your method of work. You deliberate when you consider both the method that I propose and the method to which you are accustomed. You have in mind first the new method, then the old method, and your thought moves from the one to the other. You pause undecided before the two alternatives between which you must choose. Your attention does not rest exclusively on the one method or on the other, but is divided between them. At the moment when you give attention to one of them exclusively your mind will be made up: your deliberation will end.

If I am attempting to induce you to leave your present position and accept a position with me, you may be said to deliberate when you have attention upon both

possibilities. During the deliberation the alternatives successively enter the focus of consciousness. You keep thinking of the advantages of the new position and keep thinking also of the advantages of the old position, and your thought moves from the one to the other. You are making a choice between the two propositions, and have not decided on one or the other. You feel all the time that the problem is not solved and that before you finish you are again to think of the alternative partially banished from thought.

If I attempt to sell you my line of goods you deliberate only when you consider my line and at the same time think of other goods that you might purchase. You may be impressed by my proposition, but still have the feeling that the other lines ought to be considered. You may not, at the moment, have my competitor's goods clearly in mind, but you do hold your decision in suspense, with the thought that my line of goods is not the only thing to be considered. You are confronted by alternatives, between which you must choose—my line and competing lines. The evidence in favor of the one or the other is not all in, there is more to be thought of before a decision can be reached, and so both possibilities are kept alive in your mind.

When you read an advertisement and deliberate as to whether you shall purchase the goods or not, the advertisement does not occupy your complete attention. Your thought is on other goods as well. You compare the goods advertised with other similar goods, or you compare purchasing with not purchasing at all. It is true that you do not hold the two or more alternatives steadily before you. First one, then the other, is in the

focus of attention; or the competing goods or action may not come into the focus at all, but may remain in the background of consciousness, holding up your decision and reminding you that there are other things that at least might be thought of.

In all such cases deliberation involves two or more alternatives both thought of either directly or indirectly. You are in a sort of dilemma, choosing between its two horns. You may choose this or that, but you cannot choose both. Every act of deliberation involves the same conditions. Shall I buy this or that? Do this, or that, or that? Accept, or not accept? In deliberating the various possibilities are held in mind to be considered and compared.

A Typical Act of Deliberation Consists of:

II. An Idea of the Steps Necessary to Secure the Things or Propositions

In considering the alternatives I do not think of the things or propositions by themselves alone, but in relation to my own actions. I shall purchase either a new radio set or a new typewriter. Which would be more useful? I have tried to get an idea of each, but I find that my ideas are not merely of radio set and typewriter, but rather of myself-securing-and-possessing-the-radio-set, and of myself-securing-and-possessing-the-typewriter. The thought of myself *in the act of purchasing them* is an essential part of my deliberation. I think of the steps necessary to secure them, of the effort that it will take on my part to do the one or the other.

When you appeal to me to change my method of work I am bound to consider the steps necessary in

making the change. I cannot drop the one method and —presto!—take on the other. When you ask me to take a position with you I am sure to consider the steps involved in making the change. If I am lazy I will prefer the path of least resistance, other things being equal. Thus in deliberating I am never able to think of the alternative propositions abstractly, but must consider the steps involved in adopting the one or the other.

If I am firmly convinced that I want a thing I will take the trouble to find out what steps are necessary to secure it. If, however, it is a matter of little difference which of two purchases I make, I am likely to make the one that causes least thought and trouble. If I find two advertisements of similar goods equally appealing, but in one case I am given full instructions as to how to order, and in the other case not, I am likely to do the easy thing and follow the printed instructions.

It is also a fact that when I have definite knowledge of the steps necessary to secure an article this knowledge seeks expression in action. The projection of myself in imagination into the future and into the acts necessary for placing the order greatly increases the chances that I shall respond favorably to the appeal.

In deliberation the idea of the necessary steps may be very vague and hazy, but in some form it is always present. Since the person who deliberates always does think of the steps involved in the alternatives, it is the part of wisdom to make them as clear and distinct as possible. This makes it easier for a person to think about purchasing your goods, and also in a sense initiates the actions that are to end in the purchase. Many

advertisements fail because they do not clearly show when or where the goods can be purchased. Neglect of this point has weakened many attempts to influence men.

### A Typical Act of Deliberation Consists of:

### III. A Feeling of Value Attaching to Each of the Things or Propositions

In deliberation we have knowledge of the alternatives and of the steps necessary to secure them. But besides knowledge, we have feelings about them. The possible objects of choice thrill us more or less with pleasure or displeasure. The "thrill" may be very mild; nothing more than a background feeling of pleasantness or unpleasantness that goes with the thought of possession. Nothing can really challenge our attention which does not awaken our feelings in some degree.

We pay attention only to things that seem to us "worth while," that are connected in some way with our fundamental instincts or our acquired desires and interests. Nobody will deliberate over a thing that does not make such an appeal. It must be connected with our appetites, our natural impulses, our purposes, hopes or aspirations, else it cannot move us at all. It must appeal to human sentiments and human emotions. It must seem to advance our interests in some way. Very often an appeal will fail because, while it seems "logical," it awakens no feeling or emotion in the person appealed to. It leaves him cold and indifferent. When I appeal to you to perform a certain act I cannot hope to be successful unless I can make the act seem valuable.

You must be made to anticipate the pleasure of possession or of fulfillment.

If I propose to you that you change your method of work the proposal will not move you unless, in some degree, it awakens hope, creates enthusiasm, or appeals to you as being worth while. The appeal must touch you "where you live"; must arouse in you some anticipation of pleasure to be secured through the change. If I propose that you accept a proffered position you will not deliberate at all unless the new position appeals to your ambitions and interests. Your self-interest must be touched; your desire for promotion or for social recognition. The salesman must appeal to your wants or desires, must show you the values of his goods in relation to your own interests, if he is to sell you at all. The printed advertisement must "make your mouth water," must arouse the emotional desire for possession, or it fails.

Deliberation thus involves an emotional or value element that cannot be overlooked. We are not thinking machines. We are moved by impulses, feelings, emotions. Our feelings are in direct connection with our actions. And in every process of deliberation the values of the proposed alternatives are considered, and play an important part in the decision. Nobody will deliberate over a proposition that does not appeal directly or indirectly to his feelings.

### A Typical Act of Deliberation Consists of:

### IV. A Comparison of Relative Values

We have so far noted three factors present in deliberation. Various alternatives are considered, the steps

necessary to secure them are thought of, and the emotional values attached to each are present in consciousness. But deliberation especially involves an activity of comparison and contrast. Thought passes from the one alternative to the other, considering the values of each in turn.

Comparisons are sometimes difficult to make. The alternatives are involved; I must think about them in some orderly and systematic way before I can reach a decision.

For months I have been deliberating as to whether I should secure my recreation from golf or from tennis. I found it impracticable to play both. When I tried to "think it over," my difficulty was in trying to secure a satisfactory basis for comparison. Golf is more expensive than tennis, but has social features not possessed by tennis. Golf consumes more time than tennis, but is not so exhausting. Golf is more in vogue now than tennis, but affords less real pleasure. Golf can be played more months of the year, but tennis can be played when I have but a half hour for recreation. Most of my friends play golf, but I can play tennis better than golf. None of these classifications seemed satisfactory. I finally got a comparison that was decisive by classifying the two sports according to the efficiency standard, *i.e.*, the production per minute. Tennis gives more exercise per minute than golf. The double standard of economy of time and of the amount of exercise secured, made it possible for me to decide in favor of tennis.

In any act of deliberation there is some effort, however slight, involved in the act of comparison.

Sometimes the comparison is quickly made, because classifications are immediately at hand. Will you buy foreign goods, or American goods? You may immediately class the one act as patriotic, the other as unpatriotic; when that is done the matter is settled for you, since you are intensely patriotic. But classifications do not always lie ready at hand. We may find it difficult to secure standards of comparison.

The wise salesman or advertiser will remember that people commonly find difficulty in reaching a decision unless a basis of comparison is provided, or ready at hand. Suppose that you are selling butter in competition with a competitor. If you can lead your customer to compare the two products as to their freshness and flavor, you will find that he is likely to reach a decision more quickly than if you do not suggest such a contrast. Similarly, if a purchaser can be led to classify your article as fashionable, artistic, healthful, or profitable, he can the more easily decide to buy. The average person is not very ingenious at making comparisons; he is apt to be baffled by a calculation that is at all complex. He can be helped by providing him with the classifications and other means of comparison that will expedite his thinking.

Of the alternatives presented in deliberation some one must seem more valuable than the others, else a decision cannot be reached. When you listen to my arguments in favor of my merchandise and are led to deliberate upon the purchase, you consciously bring together the advantages or values of my goods in comparison with those of competing goods and pass the judgment of *more* valuable or *less* valuable. Unless there is such

a comparison, and unless it is more or less a conscious process, you cannot be said to have deliberated at all.

A Typical Act of Deliberation Consists of:

V. A Conviction and Execution

The act of deliberation is not complete until it ends in conviction and action. Very often this last step is not taken. That is a serious defect in the process. For it is the nature of deliberation to lead to a decision, and when it does not the deliberative act fails of its objective.

Very often arguments advanced by men who seek to influence others fail because, while they cause men to deliberate, they are not adequate to secure the final and essential step. Arguments may sometimes, by the manner in which they are stated, defeat their own ends.

Some men who try to influence their fellows by reasoning are students of logic. Logic is a valuable study. Very often, however, these men acquire the idea that a prospective customer can be compelled to make a certain conclusion by the sheer force of a chain of reasoning. The syllogism is their ideal, with its conclusion following inevitably from its premises. There are dangers to be guarded against in this idea. Let us consider the syllogism for a moment.

The perfect syllogism consists of three parts—the major premise, the minor premise, and the conclusion. Thus:

All metals conduct electricity.
Aluminum is a metal.
Therefore aluminum will conduct electricity.

"All metals conduct electricity," is the major premise. "Aluminum is a metal," is the minor premise. "Therefore aluminum will conduct electricity," is the conclusion. After we have thought the major premise, and after we have classified aluminum as a metal, we are absolutely compelled to pass on to the conclusion that aluminum will conduct electricity.

Frequently arguments are put into the form of an implied syllogism. Such arguments may readily be expanded into the form of the complete syllogism. Thus, "He ought to be supported by the state for he is an old soldier," is an abbreviation of—

All old soldiers should be supported by the state.
This man is an old soldier.
Therefore he should be supported by the state.

The life insurance agent occasionally puts his arguments into the form of an implied syllogism: thus, "You ought to take out a policy because your wife needs the protection." This implies the syllogism—

A man ought to take the steps necessary to protect his wife.
Taking out a policy is a protection for the wife.
Therefore you ought to take out a policy.

The real estate dealer also frequently uses an abbreviated syllogism. He says, "This real estate would be a profitable investment for it is in a growing part of the city." Expanded, the syllogism is:

Purchasing real estate in growing parts of the city is profitable.

This real estate is in a growing part of the city.
Therefore, it is a profitable investment.

When the implied syllogism is expanded into its complete form the force of it is frequently strengthened, if it is valid, but the fallacy is made more apparent if it is spurious.

The attempt to compel assent by presenting arguments in a syllogistic form is liable to throw the hearer into a defensive attitude. The citadel of reason cannot ordinarily be stormed successfully by arguments without awakening some resistance. When the public has taken an attitude of self-defence, in the attempt to avoid our proposals, the arguments must be strong if they are to result in victory.

The syllogistic argument is a method of getting the intellectual "drop" on the public, and compelling them to hold up their hands. When thus convinced the hands are brought down as soon as possible, and the funds turned over are the minimum amounts.

Any man will sign a note for a thousand dollars if a revolver is held against his head and he is threatened with death unless he signs. The law, however, will not hold him for the payment of the note, on the ground that it was signed under duress. A man convinced by the sheer force of logic is likely to avoid the very action which would seem to be the only natural result of the conviction thus secured. This situation is expressed by the familiar proverb, "A man convinced against his will is of the same opinion still." The truthfulness of this statement is continually illustrated by your actions and mine.

My wife and Dr. Fletcher made me admit that I should chew my food with great care. The argument as presented was:

> A sensible man is one who takes pains to acquire habits that will prolong life and increase human efficiency.
> Thoroughly masticating food is such a habit.
> Therefore if I am such a man I will acquire the habit of thoroughly masticating my food.

Being a rational creature you might assume that from that day to this I would have reformed and acquired the habit of "Fletcherizing." As a matter of fact I have gone right on in the old habit of bolting my food.

Some years ago I worked up the arguments for and against the necessity of taking a vacation each year. When the arguments were formulated in my mind I was thoroughly convinced of the necessity of taking a vacation each year if I was to attain my maximum efficiency. When the time for my vacation arrived I spent the time, not on the golf links, but in working on a book.

The syllogism has its uses. But *argument put into syllogistic form* is worse than useless. It makes the fatal mistake of trying to do the other fellow's thinking for him. It proposes: this is so, and that is so, *therefore* you must conclude this and are not free to make any other conclusion. Men cannot be "therefored" into buying bonds or changing their methods of work. The process of deliberation, by which a man reaches a decision, is necessarily slow, and takes time to develop. The wise man in argument will provide the materials from

which the thinker may draw his own conclusions. The *enthymeme,* not the completed syllogism, should be the ideal of the skillful arguer. An enthymeme is a syllogism, one of whose propositions has been omitted. Thus:

> People will spend money for things that amuse them.
>
> This is a thing that will amuse them.

The conclusion is implied, but not expressed. In general, the man who is skillful in argument will put his best efforts into the job of making clear the premises of his argument, leaving his hearer to draw the inevitable conclusion.

We have now traced the five steps in deliberation. We know that if a man is to deliberate the alternatives must be clearly before him, he must apprehend what steps are required to secure them, he must sense the values of each, and compare the propositions with reference to their values. The man skilled in argument knows that the beam of judgment is to tip one way or the other. He wants it to tip his way. Hence he presents his alternative in the brightest and clearest colors, makes the securing of his goods seem easy, and represents their values to best advantage. He is feeding material into the process that will give his proposition a superior attractiveness. He allows the man to draw his own conclusions; he must. Nobody can take the final step that leads to conviction and execution *except the deliberator himself.*

A conviction and an execution may result without deliberation (*e.g.,* as the result of imitation); they are

not, therefore, the peculiarly characterizing features of deliberation. The steps which precede the conviction differ in acts which may be classed as deliberative and in those which should not be so classed. We should reserve the term deliberation for the completed act including the five steps.

You may properly be said to have deliberated if you have decided to continue your old method of work (or to adopt the new):

1. After you have had definitely in mind what is involved in the proposed change.
2. After you have imagined yourself as taking the necessary steps to effect the proposed change.
3. After you have felt the value of the new method as well as that of the old.
4. After you have reached conviction (with or without the syllogism) and classified and compared the relative values and decided in favor of one of the alternatives or the other.
5. And then have taken steps to put your conviction into execution.

The conviction may or may not be made with a feeling of greater certainty because of the formal steps taken in reaching it. There is an assurance in conviction after due deliberation which makes the individual feel satisfied with what he has done. However, a conviction reached without deliberation is frequently held to tenaciously, even when assailed by later arguments against the wisdom of the act.

The science of chemistry has rendered a great service to the manufacturer of material things by showing

him exactly all the elements included in the material with which he works. The manufacturer adopts his methods to utilize as far as possible all the elements indicated by the chemical analysis. When the chemist reports the essential constituents of cement in the slag secured from steel, the manufacturer is enabled to convert his dump heap into a valuable by-product.

The science of psychology makes clear to the superintendent and to the salesman the factors involved in an act of deliberation. The superintendent may thus persuade his employees more successfully when he remembers that a clear idea of the desired change is the first step in deliberation. He may avoid trouble by providing that the *how* of the proposed change shall be presented to the men. He may decide to adopt some other method than argument when he appreciates the mental processes included in the normal reaction from arguments. Every man whose success depends upon the influencing of men may be benefited by utilizing the findings of science rather than by following the rule-of-thumb or the traditions of the house.

The salesman may make radical changes in his method when he realizes that every act of deliberation includes a feeling as to value, which attaches itself to each of the possible choices of things or of acts. He may present his case more skillfully when he knows that the goods offered will be classified and compared in the course of the deliberation. He may bring the argument to a successful climax by keeping ever in mind that conviction and execution are the final and most essential parts of the deliberation.

The manager of a steel plant should know the chem-

ical constituents of the materials used. The salesman or the superintendent who uses arguments should know what mental processes are awakened in the minds of men by the presenting of arguments. Through understanding the workings of the minds of his men he should know (1) when it is wise to resort to arguments, and (2) how to construct them to secure the maximum results. The answer to these two questions will be taken up in later chapters.[1]

[1] See Chapters V and VII.

# CHAPTER III

# AN ANALYSIS OF SUGGESTION

OUTLINE

Traditional and Modern Conception of Suggestion:

I. The Working of Suggestion is Dependent upon the Impulsive, Dynamic Nature of Ideas
II. Suggestions Come to Us from Without (Usually from Persons) and Give Rise to Acts Similar to Imitative Acts
III. Suggestion Includes No Comparison or Criticism
IV. Suggestion Secures Direct Response Without Any Delay

Illustration of Principles

# CHAPTER III

# AN ANALYSIS OF SUGGESTION

## Traditional and Modern Conception of Suggestion

The ancients defined man as the *reasoning* animal. Other creatures, they thought, cannot reason. Hence, they thought, reason is distinctive in human nature, and the proper way to influence a man is through his intellect—by means of consecutive and logical trains of reasoning. The science that treats of correct reasoning is logic. Logic was established by Aristotle, some three centuries before the Christian era.

Aristotle's syllogistic mode of argument remained the ideal of the educated world until recent times. All the details of logical method, all the tricks and turns of debate, were worked out by students in the course of centuries. Logic developed into a formidable discipline. But logic alone has not sufficed to instruct us in the art of influencing men. It can tell us how men do respond when they respond logically, but men's reactions are frequently anything but logical.

Of course, it has always been recognized, more or less clearly, that the majority of men cannot be influenced by purely logical reasoning. But the learned men of the past, the scholars and students, failed to grasp the significance of that fact. They failed especially to inquire what mental processes occur when men are persuaded by other than logical methods. It was not until

modern psychology developed its technique of analysis that another force, *suggestion,* was clearly recognized and described.

In the absence of scientific knowledge of the method of suggestion, thinkers of the past were led into many absurd and superstitious practices in their attempts to discover methods of influencing others. From the time of the ancients down to comparatively recent times it was more or less definitely taught that profound and striking results on individuals or groups could be produced only by means of some superhuman power. The stars were accredited with dominating influence over individuals. To this day we continue to use expressions which have their interpretation in such superstitions. We "thank our lucky stars"; we rap on wood when we boast; some of us carry a rabbit's foot in the pocket; others almost believe in lucky stones; while many assert that they are "bewitched" when they do some particularly stupid thing. There was no possibility of great advance in the methods of influencing men so long as it was believed that factors in this influence were such things as demons, good or bad spirits, relics, birds' claws, stars, or any other supernormal uncontrollable elements. Superstition retarded the progress of truth.

A nugget of truth is often encased in a mass of error. In the advance of any science a discovered truth may seem to give credibility to many errors. This is particularly true in the case of Dr. Mesmer of Vienna who founded the practice named after him as mesmerism. In spite of the mass of errors that permeated his teachings and the charlatanism that characterized his practice, to Dr. Mesmer must be credited the honor of

having inaugurated the movement which resulted in a scientific study of methods of influencing men.

Dr. Mesmer as a youth was taught that the stars exerted an irresistible influence upon men. As a medical student he tried to discover a method for concentrating this influence and of bringing it to bear upon single individuals. He first made use of "passes" with an ordinary magnet, but later discovered that by means of a series of rhythmical passes over the body of a subject he could throw the subject into a trance and cause him to think and to act in extreme and weird ways. Instead of believing that the trance was caused by a demon or by a force emanating from the stars or the moon, Dr. Mesmer came to the conclusion that the results were secured by what he called "animal magnetism." Just as a physical magnet exerts an invisible but powerful influence over particles of iron, so, he thought, one human individual may exert an influence over others. Some individuals are possessed of much animal magnetism, and are known as individuals of commanding influence, of strong personalities, of dominating wills. Also, just as a material magnet may upon contact impart its magnetism to otherwise inert metals, so the magnetic individual may by means of passes over the body of a weak subject impart influence and magnetize him.

In 1841 a wise Scotch physician by the name of James Braid witnessed the exhibition of a mesmerist. This operator seemed to have wonderful control over his subjects. He caused them to sleep, to see visions, to have desires and aversions. Dr. Braid at first suspected trickery, but soon became convinced that the phenomena were real. He was also convinced that the theory of

animal magnetism was not necessary to explain the results. Braid and his followers, Liebeault and Bernheim, formulated the theory that the results exhibited by the mesmerists were produced by the unrecognized force of the working of the mind of the subject. This unrecognized force of the subject's own mind was called "suggestion." The trance into which subjects were thrown by mesmerists was said by Braid to be but artificial sleep produced, not by the power of the mesmerist, but by the ideas in the mind of the subject. This artificial sleep was given by Braid the name of "hypnosis," and was said to be but an instance of the extreme working of suggestion.

Braid, the Scotchman, and Liebeault and Bernheim, who were Frenchmen, may in a sense be said to have discovered Suggestion. They thought of it primarily as a force that could be used for producing unusual, extreme, and even abnormal results on human individuals. It was readily seen, however, that the force which could produce extreme results might certainly be an important factor in producing the usual and normal results. During recent years suggestion has been heralded as the great force in education and religion, in social and political movements, and in the promotion of health and the amelioration of sickness. It has been confidently asserted that the results of the advertiser and of all salesmen are dependent upon the subtle working of suggestion rather than upon the logical presentation of facts to the reason of the customers.

We have been taught by tradition that man is inherently logical, that he weighs evidence, formulates it into a syllogism, and then reaches the conclusion on

which he bases his action. The more modern conception of man is that he is a creature who rarely reasons at all. Indeed, one of the greatest students of the human mind assures us that most persons never perform an act of pure reasoning, but that all their acts are the results of imitation, habit, suggestion, or some related form of thinking which is distinctly below that which could be called reasoning. We must agree that our most important acts are performed and our most sacred conceptions are reached by means of the merest suggestion. Great commanders of men are not those who are best skilled in reasoning with their subordinates. The greatest inspirers of men are not those who are most logical in presenting their truths to the multitude. Even our greatest debaters are not those who are most logical in presenting the arguments in favor of their contention.

In moving and in inspiring men, suggestion is to be considered as in every way the equal of logical reasoning, and as such is to be made the subject of consideration for every man who is interested in influencing his followers. While tradition regarded man as wholly logical, the modern conception, as already intimated, makes him largely a creature of suggestion. Nevertheless the whole subject of suggestion has been rendered ridiculous and its true value obscured by a group of men who, with inadequate psychological learning, have been presenting suggestion as the "open sesame" to success in the business world. These teachers would lead the business man to assume that by suggestion an irresistible hypnotic spell could be utilized in business. In some instances correspondence courses in salesmanship pretend, upon the payment of a sum of money, to teach

any unsophisticated youth how to wield this mysterious and superhuman power.

Because of the surviving influence of the traditional view of man as essentially logical, and because of the recent silly exaggeration of the value of suggestion, the business man is inclined to look upon suggestion with little favor.

The following analysis is an attempt to present suggestion without exaggeration and to analyze it in such a way that the business man can see its possibilities in connection with his special task of influencing men.

### I. The Working of Suggestion is Dependent upon the Impulsive, Dynamic Nature of Ideas

The great discovery of modern psychology, by which it was enabled to grasp the true nature of suggestion, is this:

*Every idea of an action will result in that action unless hindered by an impeding idea or physical impediment.*

It used to be supposed that ideas resulted in *more ideas,* rather than in action. Sometimes idea A does call up idea B, and this is what happens when we deliberate. But when we act under suggestion, idea A calls up *action* A, thought leading directly to movement. Here, in a nut-shell, we find the difference between deliberation and suggestion. The former is a process in which idea acts upon idea; the latter is a process by which ideas are translated directly into action or preparation for action.

Last winter I saw in Chicago an exhibition by a "mind reader." His act was very clever and entertain-

ing and I advise you to see him if he comes your way. He would leave the room. Someone would then conceal an object, say a scarf-pin, in a good hiding place. The mind reader would then be asked to enter. He would say to the person who had hidden the object: "I want you to follow me, and I want you to help me find the object by thinking intently where it is. Do not make any gestures. But think hard. If I go in the wrong direction, call me back mentally. By reading your thoughts I can find the object."

He did find it—without fail. He walked ahead, watching the person behind him out of the corner of his eye. We were all fascinated by his cleverness. One of the psychologists present determined to foil him. This scientist knew how the trick was done. When one *thinks* of a place one *moves towards* it. The thought of getting the object is translated into a muscular impulse to actually get it. The muscular movement is slight, but it is present. The psychologist knew this, and knew that the mind reader was getting his cues from his incipient movements, and determined that he would, if possible, think of getting the object and at the same time suppress all bodily movement. The mind reader had a difficult struggle with this man, but persisted nevertheless, and, since the scientist was honest, and did *think* as instructed, the object was found.

The ouija-board is an excellent example of the translation of ideas into action. The hands, wandering idly, turn the planchette to the letter A. This letter suggests some letter, say L, that might follow it. No sooner is this letter thought of, than the muscles have a tendency to move the planchette towards it. People

will swear upon their honor that they do *not* voluntarily start the motion towards L. That is true. The idea of L starts the muscles, and so direct is the action of the idea that it cannot be restrained. In some slight degree it will always occur. Hence anybody who does not deliberately inhibit all thought of movement can perform with the ouija-board. If I think of the letter "o" I find that in the muscles of my lips there is a tension which becomes merely stronger for the actual pronunciation of the letter. If I think intently upon the letter "k" I find that my tongue tends to draw back into the position necessary for pronouncing the letter. Even where these movements are so slight that they are not observed by the person himself, they may often be recorded by a planchette, ouija-board, or other similar device.

The tendency for an idea of an act to lead to the act is also shown in glandular and involuntary muscle-actions. Thus if I get an idea that I am going to blush, the idea sends the blood rushing to my face. If I think intently of biting into a ripe, juicy peach, the salivary glands respond at once, even though no food has been taken into my mouth. The influence of ideas in the digestion and assimilation of food has recently been fully proved. The idea that one is progressing well and will recover is a factor in bringing about the recovery.

The wise parent and teacher make constant use of the dynamic nature of ideas. The one who fails to regard this fact gets into trouble. The solicitous parent who upon leaving her children said, "Now, children, whatever you do don't put beans in your noses," should not have been surprised upon her return to find that

the children's noses were filled with beans. The idea, "beans in the nose," simply took possession of their minds and the dynamic force of the idea led to the activity. In controlling children parents and teachers learn not to suggest the things which are to be avoided. The impulsive nature of the suggested ideas is too much for the children to resist.

The dynamic nature of mind is further shown by the fact which is expressed in the following general law:

*Every idea, concept, or conclusion which enters the mind is held as true unless hindered by some contradictory idea.*

This does not mean that one thinks it to be true, or that one has deliberated and decided that it is true. There is usually no deliberation at all. The idea is held to be true in the sense that it is not contradicted by any conflicting idea. There is no question about it. The idea is accepted in the same unreflective way as the fact of thirst or the idea that food would taste good. The idea is taken to be what it appears to be, a good and valid idea.

We cannot be forever doubting and questioning things. We believe what people tell us. We accept the advice of our elders, because in the vast majority of cases we can depend upon them. We never ask, "Is this true?" unless something arises to awaken doubt in our minds. Then we deliberate. But usually we are warranted in trusting the information given us by others, and would not insult them by presuming to doubt their intelligence or veracity. We depend upon others for advice in our practical affairs, and, indeed, in our artistic and religious affairs.

Thus the American people have come to believe that manual labor is degrading; that wealth is the only standard measure of achievement; that it is unwomanly to smoke pipes; that Ivory Soap is 99 44/100 per cent pure; that White Rock is the world's best table water; that "There is a reason" for Postum; that the Gillette adds to the sum total of human happiness. Belief in such ideas has become established in the minds of millions. Whether true or false, they have been accepted and adopted. They have been frequently presented and suggested, and since people have had no reason to contradict them, they have become fixed as permanent habits of thought and action.

The general and universal tendency is to accept as valid all ideas, and this result follows in every instance unless with the idea there arises an idea of its falsity.

The significance of this fact of the dynamic nature of thought and its application to business must be apparent to all. If we can give a man any sort of idea it is not necessary to convince him of the truth of the idea if we can keep conflicting ideas from arising in his mind. If I can get you to read the sentence, "Morgan and Wright tires are good tires," you will believe that they are good tires and that too without any further proof, if only contradictory ideas do not surge up into your mind.

When a man is hypnotized and told that the world is to come to an end in thirty minutes, he believes it fully because contradictory ideas do not arise to inhibit the suggested idea of calamity.

Students of social psychology have discovered that

crowds are particularly likely to be uncritical in accepting ideas, especially if the ideas are in line with the mob mood and tendency. The individual, left to himself, feels a considerable responsibility for making sound judgments. In a crowd he shifts the responsibility upon others. He falls in with whatever is suggested, and translates his thoughts directly with actions. The crowd, being relieved from the restraints of propriety, of responsibility, and of critical thinking, is in a condition to exhibit the dynamic force of ideas in an extreme form. There is an alacrity of response, an immediate carrying out of every suggested action, which is not apparent in the action of single individuals. The individual is wholly absorbed in the crowd purpose and is completely devoted to that purpose, whether it be the lynching of a negro, the adoration of a hero, the winning of the game, or the capture of the Holy Sepulchre. In times of panic the idea gets abroad that property is depreciating in value. This idea is accepted by most persons without proof simply because the attendant conditions keep contradictory ideas from arising in the mind. Hypnosis and the crowd remove the inhibitions and permit the dynamic nature of ideas to manifest itself.

The first characteristic of an act of suggestion, then, is that the ideas carry themselves out into action and into belief by means of an inherent tendency. This tendency we speak of as the "dynamic impulsive nature of ideas." No act should be attributed to suggestion unless it illustrates this impulsive nature of ideas in a more or less striking manner.

## II. Suggestions Come to Us from Without (Usually from Persons) and Give Rise to Acts Similar to Imitative Acts

Suggestions are given us from sources external to ourselves, either objects or persons. The cool water suggests "drink," and we drink; a friend suggests, "have a smoke," and we smoke. Indeed, we accept suggestions from others without being aware at all that we are doing so. If one member of a group coughs or yawns, I am likely to do the same without being in the least aware that I am imitating another's act. If I associate with persons having a peculiar intonation of voice, I am likely to acquire the same peculiarity, even though I may not desire to do so. In these cases suggestion arouses in us a sort of unconscious imitation of others. Much more of our activity is unconsciously imitative than we would ordinarily suppose.

Through the history of the human race people have lived in groups. Every group has had its common enemy and its common friends. Unity of action and unity of thought have been essential. Consequently we have developed tendencies to produce such uniformities. The sight of one person performing any act begets in others a tendency to perform the same act. If one person has a belief which he expresses in any way, others are inclined to have the same belief. We are by nature great imitators, and our credulity is greater than we are willing to believe.

Hypnosis, mob-action, and panics are but illustrations of extreme cases of the universal tendency to imitate the acts of others and to believe what we assume they believe. In hypnosis the subject becomes drowsy

because of his belief that the hypnotist confidently expects it of him. He is unable to move his hand because of his belief that the hypnotist knows that he cannot. He sees a vision because of his belief that the hypnotist expects him to see the vision. It makes no difference what the hypnotist actually thinks, but only what the subject assumes that he thinks. The ideas of the subject are suggested because they result from the words and acts of the hypnotist.

In mob-action, in panics, and in all forms of social stampedes, the force of suggestion becomes irresistible. We all imitate the actions that we see in others, and we believe what the others believe. In mob-action of any form the individual receives the same suggestion from each individual composing the mob. The suggestion comes from the words spoken, the gestures made, the emotions expressed. The native imitativeness and credulity of the normal individual is so great that such a wave of suggestion is irresistible.

The efficiency of advertising is doubtless in part due to the action of suggestion and is much like the working of suggestion in mobs. As I read an advertisement of Ivory Soap in a medium of wide circulation I feel that it is being read and believed in by multitudes of people. I feel sure that it is being purchased by thousands of my fellow mortals. The suggestion that the soap is 99 44/100 per cent pure does not seem to come primarily from the concern which makes the statement, but from the thousands of customers who now believe it. The tendency to act as they are supposed to act is also no small factor in causing me to imitate their assumed actions.

In all of these examples we have instances of people being influenced to act by suggestions from other people, from objects and events. It is perfectly natural and proper for us to react to suggestions in these unhesitating ways. My fellow-workman increases his pace as he nears the factory; I increase mine also. My friend is joyous; I become joyous also. We are in such close, immediate contact with things and people, the need for prompt action is so urgent, that we have naturally allowed familiar words and objects to make direct contact with our reactions. It would be strange if we did not.

### III. Suggestion Includes No Comparison or Criticism

Every idea is dynamic and naturally leads to action or belief. For instance, if I should state that the square of twenty-six is six hundred and seventy-six, that idea would be believed by you or else would awaken in your mind the idea that I was merely jesting or that I had made a mistake. If I should state that you would now scratch the end of your nose to remove the unpleasant feeling caused by the fly sitting there, you would feel a strong tendency to scratch your nose, or else the idea would cause you to think how foolish it would be to perform the act. In an act that can properly be called suggestion, the idea never calls up other ideas, such as "he is jesting" or "how foolish"—but is accepted uncritically and without any deliberation.

When in conversation with certain individuals, we discover that for them our words are powerful suggestions. If we say that the day is fine, they respond that the atmosphere is unusually bracing. If we state that

they are looking pale and weak, they are likely to feel sick at once and possibly send for a physician. If we propose a game of golf, that particular form of activity appeals to them as the only possible pleasing form of recreation. Such individuals would be classed as extremely suggestible. There are others for whom our words are not taken as suggestions, but who are stimulated to criticize, no matter what we say. If we remark that the weather is fine, they immediately reply that it is liable to rain before night. If we tell them they are looking sick, they reply that they never felt better in all their lives. If we propose golf, they advance six reasons why it would be absurd for any sensible individual to waste his time at that silly game. Such individuals, because of their complete lack of suggestibility, are unsuited to any form of coöperative endeavor and are out of place in modern industry.

Since suggestion is free from criticism, neither the opposite nor any possible alternative to the thing proposed enters the mind. All normal persons are suggestible under certain conditions and take the suggestions given if these are of the right sort and presented properly.

### IV. Suggestion Secures Direct Response Without Any Delay

In deliberation, we must delay in order that sufficient time may intervene for possible alternatives to arise in our minds, for us to classify them, to compare them, and to make a choice among them. Deliberation thus places the subject in a more or less critical attitude,

and unless the argument is conclusive, this attitude is likely to be retained and the proposed action permanently resisted. Delay is essential for weighing arguments, but every moment of delay increases the probability that no action will result. The inherent weakness of deliberation is expressed in the familiar quotation, "He who hesitates is lost."

In suggestion the proposed idea of an act is allowed to take its normal course, which, according to the impulsive nature of ideas, results in immediate action. The proposed act may be of such a nature that it cannot be completed till some future time. Even in such instances the act is really begun at once even though it cannot be completed till later. For example, if it is suggested to me that I secure a ticket when downtown tomorrow, and if without any consideration I consent to do so, my consent is due to suggestion and the tickets probably will be purchased tomorrow. The consent follows the suggestion immediately and the tickets will be purchased at the appropriate time and that too without any deliberation at the later time of purchase. Of course something might happen in the meantime which would cause me to consider the advisability of the purchase and in such a case it would cease to be an act of suggestion.

Our analysis reveals suggestion as a great force in moving men to act. The great majority of our acts, probably, are of the familiar kind described in these pages. The wise student of human nature will recognize that in influencing others suggestion is a device that can be used legitimately and used effectually.

### Illustration of Principles

The four principles revealed by the analysis of suggestion are best understood when applied to an extreme case, *i.e.*, to the condition known as hypnosis. Common charcoal and cut diamonds are equally good examples of carbon. In the same way the working of suggestion may be illustrated by profound hypnosis or by the effect of such common advertising as "Use Pears' Soap."

In presenting the subject of suggestion to my classes in psychology I am accustomed to demonstrate its most extreme manifestations. Three of the most highly esteemed men students in the class are selected and seated in comfortable chairs in front of the class. Turning my attention to these three I get them to concentrate their minds upon the hypnotic condition as I depict it. After a few minutes I assert with a voice of assurance that their eyes are getting heavy, are heavy; are closing, are closed! If my remarks have been effectively given the young men find that their eyes do just as I suggest. After securing the successful working of this suggestion upon their eyes, I follow rapidly with other suggestions of increasing difficulty. I assert that their right arms are stiff and cannot be moved. They often attempt to show that their arms can be moved, but usually their attempts are unsuccessful. I assert that their left arms are light, are rising up and moving in a circle. This suggestion is usually successful. I suggest that the bottle which I hold to their noses contains a delightful perfume. Thereupon they enjoy the odor immensely even though the bottle contains asafetida.

It is evident that the four principles found in the

analysis of ordinary suggestion characterize this extreme form of suggestion also.

1. The dynamic nature of thought was shown in that the idea conceived by the young men carried itself out even though it involved apparent absurdity. The idea, "my eyes are closed," made it impossible for these healthy young men to open their eyes.

2. That the suggested ideas are presented by external objects or persons was illustrated by my giving all the suggestions to them.

3. The absence of comparison and criticism was capitally illustrated in that the young men enjoyed the odor because I told them they would, even though the odor of asafetida is excessively nauseous.

4. That suggestion secures direct response without delay was illustrated by the alacrity with which all suggested ideas were held as true and all suggested actions were performed in every detail.

No business man should ever have anything to do with hypnosis. He should realize, however, that hypnosis is simply an extreme example of suggestion. In hypnosis he sees the extreme working of a method of influencing men which is available for him in less extreme forms. The value of the four principles revealed by our analysis of suggestion lies in the fact that they hold universally and hence are applicable to every instance in which suggestion is used as a means of influencing men. Later chapters [1] will deal with the very practical problems of (1) when the business man should use suggestion, and (2) how suggestions may be made effective.

[1] See Chapters VI and X.

# CHAPTER IV

# DELIBERATION AND SUGGESTION CONTRASTED

OUTLINE

I. Deliberation is a Long-Circuit, Indirect Method of Eliciting Responses; Suggestion is a Short-Circuit, Direct Method of Appeal

II. Deliberation Requires One to Stop or Pause, and Consumes Time and Energy; Suggestion is Direct-Connected with Action, and Consumes a Minimum of Time and Energy

III. Deliberation is Induced by Things or Situations that are Novel, or in Some Way Doubtful, Strange, or Uncertain; Suggestion Operates Best in the Presence of Objects and Situations that are Familiar, Habitual, and Assured

# CHAPTER IV

## DELIBERATION AND SUGGESTION CONTRASTED

### I. Deliberation is a Long-Circuit, Indirect Method of Eliciting Responses; Suggestion is a Short-Circuit, Direct Method of Appeal

Now that Deliberation and Suggestion have been presented in separate chapters, it might be profitable to set them beside one another and draw the principal contrasts between them. By so doing we will be better able to understand their different functions and uses.

Deliberation is a long-circuit mental process; Suggestion a short-circuit mental process. In order to understand this distinction we must get some notion of what happens in the brain. A diagram will assist our comprehension (Figure 1).

Fix attention upon the part of the diagram marked M.A. This is the motor area of the brain. It has been discovered that there is in the cortex of the cerebrum a certain area which controls our muscles. Every nerve-current that leaves the brain to go to a muscle leaves from this region. *It is the sending station of the brain.* Every nerve-current that leaves the cortex passes out through the motor-control area. In the diagram the arrows show that nerve-currents pass from the motor area out through the motor nerves to the muscles.

Fix attention again upon the part of the diagram marked S.A. This represents the sensory areas of the brain (there are actually several areas, corresponding to several senses). All nerve-currents passing from our sense-organs into the brain are received in these sensory areas. *They are the receiving station of the brain.* No sensory-nerve current enters the brain except through S.A.

Suppose you are making an appeal to a customer. You can reach him only through his sense-organs: by

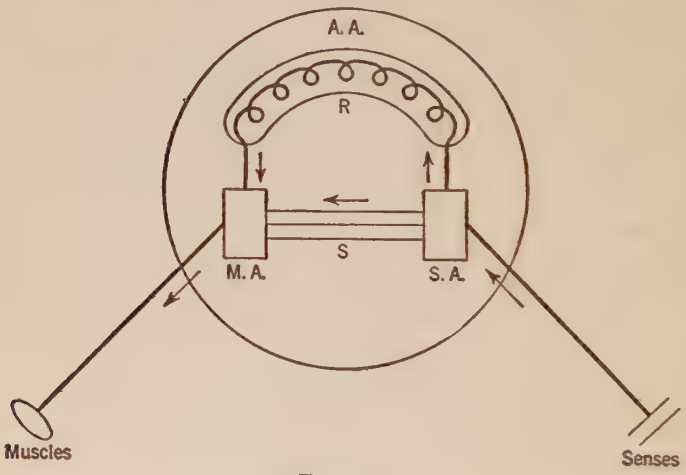



FIGURE 1

talking to him, showing him something, giving a sample to touch, smell, or taste. From the sense-organs currents run into S.A.

What you want from him is a response, in the way of assurance or immediate purchase. You want him to *act*. If he is to act the action must be initiated in the motor area, M.A.

How does the nerve-current get from S.A. to M.A., from the receiving station to the sending station?

*It may follow either of the two pathways marked* R *and* S *in our diagram.*

In the case of Suggestion the current runs over the pathways marked S. These are direct wires from the receiving to the sending station. Psychologists call them "established pathways through the association (or hook-up) centers." They are well-worn, much-used pathways of travel. They are channels of "low resistance." Nerve-currents will follow them unless special circumstances shunt them off onto the longer circuit marked R.

The long circuit R is followed in Deliberation. It passes through the special association areas marked A.A. in the diagram. The loops in the line indicate that the currents reaching A.A. wander about a great deal, and hence are delayed and pass through slowly. A.A. is especially the seat of memory. In deliberating, as is known, we think of this and that, remember this or that circumstance, and ponder upon various aspects of our problem (see Chapter II).

The diagram will explain why Deliberation takes so much more time than Suggestion. It will also indicate why we may speak of Suggestion as direct, and of Deliberation as indirect. Suggestion strikes directly and without delay at the sources of response. It is direct-connected with action. Deliberation is indirect, and only arouses response after a decision is reached in the association areas.

II. Deliberation Requires One to Stop or Pause, and Consumes Time and Energy; Suggestion is Direct-Connected with Action, and Consumes a Minimum of Time and Energy

Deliberation takes time and involves serious effort if long continued. The man who deliberates *stops acting in order to think.*

If I ask you to change your method of work you are likely to respond: "I don't know; let me think about that." Possibly you fall into the typical attitude of the thinker. Your brows are wrinkled in the effort at concentration; you seem to withdraw from me into yourself, while you think over the alternatives presented. Your thought is passing over the "long-circuit," and your association areas are at work.

Deliberation may take a long time or a short time, depending on conditions. It always takes more time than Suggestion. You may reach a decision in five minutes, or in half an hour. You may decide after "taking it home to think it over." You may continue your deliberation, at various intervals, over a month or more, seeking in the meantime new information about the alternatives and their values. Some people are habitually more deliberate in their actions than others. They are more cautious or conservative, or sometimes more thorough than others.

But in any case when one starts a person to deliberating, it is to be expected that there will be a pause, which, if the conditions are not favorable, may be prolonged indefinitely.

Suggestion, if it acts at all, takes effect immediately in action. There may be some slight preliminary inhibi-

tion to be overcome. The individual may hesitate for a moment. *If he hesitates too long, deliberation sets in.* The wise salesman will be able to recognize when the "long circuit" has gone into action. He must modify his appeal correspondingly.

Suggestion operates with a minimum of effort. The person receiving a suggestion does not come to a stop; he continues responding. As a shoe salesman I make the statement: "This shoe has been popular this season." If the suggestion is accepted, what happens? The customer accepts it as true. Popularity is a label that he immediately attaches to the shoe indicated. It becomes, for the person, as much a part of the shoe as its shape or color. Therefore he will react to the shoe as a popular shoe, and buy it accordingly. Suggestions are always accepted or acted upon immediately, and do not cause the person accepting them any sense of strain or effort.

### III. Deliberation is Induced by Things or Situations that are Novel, or in Some Way Doubtful, Strange, or Uncertain; Suggestion Operates Best in the Presence of Objects and Situations that are Familiar, Habitual, and Assured

Men deliberate in the presence of problems. They find themselves at cross-roads, where they can go one direction or another, and must make a choice. Where the roads are familiar, and we know where they lead, deliberation is not necessary. There is nothing to deliberate about.

But when we are confronted by new facts and circumstances we are apt to pause and reflect. Shall I

adopt a new method of work? Shall I take a position with you? Here are perplexities and uncertainties. I am not sure of my ground. There are things to be cleared up before I can arrive at a decision. When I am called upon to do something I have not done before, to confront new situations, to deal with novel facts, then I pause for deliberation.

Suggestion on the contrary is most fluent and effective in familiar situations and circumstances. My wife tells me that the grapefruit is very good this morning. Very well, I'll try it. The information comes from a reliable source with respect to a familiar article. In the situation where suggestion operates best there are no acute problems. All is clear. Nothing causes me to hesitate. Therefore I act without inhibition. When my radio set was new I had many problems concerning it. I deliberated often. Now that I am familiar with it, it causes me no thought. Suggest to me that I turn it on and, without pause, I turn it on. Why not? The suggestion operates readily in situations in which new, uncertain, and distracting factors are not present.

Psychologists affirm that Deliberation calls for "readjustment" on the part of the individual, while Suggestion does not.

John has been for many years a machinist in a certain shop. The foreman leaves. One day the superintendent calls John in and says: "John, you have been a good, steady, reliable workman for many years. You know your business. I want you to accept a job as foreman of your department."

The proposal causes John to deliberate. Many problems present themselves. But, particularly, John feels

himself confronted by the necessity of *making a readjustment.* He goes back to the superintendent and says: "Thank you for the offer, but I do not care to be foreman. I would have too much to worry about. I wouldn't know how to order the men about, and wouldn't know how to take orders from my superiors. I would be compelled to take my problems home with me, and worry about them at night. I would prefer to be just one of the boys, and to have no worries about my job at all."

This example illustrates the tension that is involved in all adjustment. Under unfamiliar or unaccustomed circumstances we deliberate, and to deliberate is, in a fashion, to effect a readjustment.

No such tension is involved in Suggestion. Nothing is at stake. The situation remains perfectly clear. When acting under suggestion I have a feeling of assurance and confidence in what I am doing. I know my situation, it is not strange or perplexing in any way, and there is no cause for deliberation.

These facts have many practical bearings. A person who would influence others by suggestion must avoid the introduction of strange or unfamiliar ideas or materials. He must on the contrary strive to make his appeal seem wholly in line with previous practices. But, when one seeks to influence others by deliberation, it should be understood that the person appealed to must readjust himself to new ideas and facts, and that such a process involves high tension. The wise arguer will supply the help that is needed in enabling his hearer to effect the readjustment at which he is aiming.

# CHAPTER V

# TYPES OF DECISION

OUTLINE

Deliberation is Not Always Complete or Perfect.

Steps are Omitted, and Impulses Interfere with Calm Decision.

Methods of Reaching a Decision:

I. Logical Reasoning: Benjamin Franklin's Method
II. Reason—Authority: Bismarck's Method
III. Reason—Emotion: Woman's Method
IV. Reason—Accident: Flipped-Coin Method
V. Suggestion: Weather Vane

Which of These Methods are Used Frequently and Which but Occasionally?

# CHAPTER V

# TYPES OF DECISION

## How Deliberation Operates When People Try to Reach Conclusions

### Deliberation is Not Always Complete or Perfect. Steps are Omitted, and Impulses Interfere with Calm Decision

We have now analyzed both Deliberation and Suggestion, and have compared them, so as to show their chief contrasts. In actual life, however, neither Deliberation nor Suggestion operates under ideal conditions. The consequence is that Deliberation is variously interfered with and abbreviated, and Suggestion taps unexpected responses and does not produce the results desired.

In this chapter we shall deal with some of the principal forms of Deliberation, as these are found in actual practice. In the next chapter various types of Suggestion will be discussed.

### Methods of Reaching a Decision:

#### I. Logical Reasoning: Benjamin Franklin's Method

There is a method of deciding which corresponds perfectly to what was presented in the last chapter as a typical act of deliberation. We shall speak of it here as the Benjamin Franklin type. If you belong to this

type and have a problem to solve (*e.g.,* change in method of work, change in position, goods to be purchased, etc.), you solve it (1) by getting a clear idea of the alternatives; (2) by getting in mind complete data concerning the means necessary for securing the alternative; (3) by awakening the appropriate "feeling value" with each alternative; (4) by comparing the different alternatives, and by reducing the argument to the syllogistic form to weigh the evidence; and (5) by logically and coldly accepting that alternative which the comparison shows to be the most worthy.

In applying this method we are often unable to reach a conclusion because of our inability to reduce the argument to syllogistic form, and hence to make exact comparisons and decide which course of action is to be preferred. Benjamin Franklin used this method extensively and he has left us a description of the device he employed to reach the conclusion. The following is a quotation from a letter to a friend concerning a difficult problem:

"In the affair of so much importance to you, wherein you ask my advice, I can not, for want of sufficient premises, counsel you what to determine; but, if you please, I will tell you *how*. When those difficult cases occur, they are difficult chiefly because, while we have them under consideration, all the reasons pro and con are not present to the mind at the same time; but sometimes one set present themselves, and at other times another, the first being out of sight. Hence the various purposes or inclinations that alternately prevail, and the uncertainty that perplexes us.

"To get over this, my way is to divide half a sheet

of paper by a line into two columns; writing over the one *pro* and over the other *con;* then, during three or four days' consideration, I put down, under the different heads, short hints of the different motives that at different times occur to me *for* or *against* the measure. When I have thus got them all together in one view, I endeavor to estimate their respective weights; and when I find two (one on each side) that seem equal, I strike them both out. If I find a reason *pro* equal to *two* reasons *con,* I strike out the *three.* If I judge some *two* reasons *con* equal to *three* reasons *pro,* I strike out the *five;* and thus proceeding, I find where the balance lies; and if, after a day or two of further consideration, nothing new that is of importance occurs on either side I come to a determination accordingly. And though the weight of reason can not be taken with the precision of algebraic quantities, yet when each is thus considered separately and comparatively, and the whole lies before me, I think I can judge better and am less liable to take a false step. And in fact I have found great advantage from this kind of equation, in what may be termed *moral* or *prudential algebra.*"

This reasoning is in the form of an implied syllogism, *i.e.,* I must accept this because my moral algebra shows it to be the more valuable. The expanded syllogistic form is as follows:

I shall accept that alternative which my moral algebra shows to have the greater value.
My moral algebra indicates that A has the greater value.
Therefore I accept A.

This method of Benjamin Franklin's is applicable to hesitation caused by considering the consequences of acting or of not acting, as well as to hesitation caused by weighing the respective advantages of several mutually exclusive actions. Although very few persons have ever employed the method in its entirety, as did Franklin, yet we all approximate the method in our deliberate actions. Most of us never clearly define the different reasons for or against any action and we do not hold the different reasons before us and compare them in a judicious manner. Ordinarily one reason for or against an action holds the attention and all other reasons are crowded out and serve to delay action but not to divert it. We are wise and judicious in proportion to our ability to compare motives and decide according to reason, but most of us are neither wise nor judicious.

Doubtless you do not use this Benjamin Franklin method in the exact and formal manner described by him. When you do use the method, you attempt to abbreviate it by referring the case to a general class and to one of the classes to which you have formed the habit of responding unhesitatingly. If you are considering the proposition of changing your method or speed of work, and if you classify the act as one of "increased pay," you will decide in the affirmative; in the negative, if you classify the act as merely "an attempt of the boss to speed up his employees." If you are considering the offer to enter the employ of a larger firm you will accept it if you finally classify the proposed change as "greater possibilities;" and will reject it if you classify it as "loss of independence." The salesman will sell you the goods if he can get you to classify

them as "good investments;" he will fail if you classify them as "speculations."

In deciding according to this Benjamin Franklin method, whether the process is carried on slowly and formally as advised by Franklin or whether it is shortened by referring it to a class with its stereotyped form of response, there is in either case (1) a deliberation involving comparison, and (2) a decision free from effort as soon as the evidence is all in and the case definitely classified.

### Methods of Reaching a Decision:

### II. Reason—Authority: Bismarck's Method

There is a second method of deciding which is much like logical reasoning, but differs from it in one very essential feature. In this second method after the evidence is all in there seems to be no balance in favor of either alternative, so the question is decided after the deliberation has been exhausted. The decision is finally made by an effort of will.

The struggle may be severe, but in any case the deliberation is brought to a close and the question settled by a determined "I will!" The reason alone seems inadequate to meet the case, so the authority of the individual is needed to supplant the reason. This type is therefore properly called the reason-authority type of decision, or the Bismarck type, so named after a man who is reputed to have surpassed others in deciding in this way.

In deciding according to the Franklin method the vanquished alternative drops out of mind and is not

attended to at the crucial moment of decision. In the Bismarck method both alternatives are kept in mind and by an act of will the one is vanquished and the other selected. In making the choice the subject is aware of what he is losing and so must struggle to give it up.

If you decide problems according to the Bismarck method then at the moment of decision you will have in mind both the profits to be gained by a change of method of work and also the sacrifice of ease necessary to make the change. The evidence is not clear as to what is the right course to pursue and only by a determined "I will!" can you settle it. If you settle the same question by the Franklin method, then at the moment of decision one alternative has already been eliminated and the victorious one holds your undivided attention. In the Bismarck decision one alternative never succeeds in securing exclusive attention.

If the salesman has been unable to banish competing lines from your mind so that with other goods as well as his in mind you are compelled to make the effort to decide which you will choose, you decide according to the method of Bismarck. If he has succeeded in banishing all competing lines from your mind and has enabled you to make your decision without effort, then he has enabled you to decide according to the method of Franklin. As a matter of fact most persons rarely use the Bismarck type of deciding. We usually think of the person with a strong will as making frequent use of the Bismarck method. However, the man who is able to utilize the Franklin method is to be credited with an equally strong will. The man deciding according to Franklin's method shows his strength of will by his

mastery in weighing evidence and classifying the cases that arise for solution. The man deciding according to the Bismarck method shows his strength of will by deciding without delay. Franklin's method is in general the more desirable form of strength of will, although in a crisis Bismarck's type of strength of will is necessary for heroic action.

### Methods of Reaching a Decision:

### III. Reason—Emotion: Woman's Method

What is often called the woman's method of decision differs materially from the two preceding types. In this third type insufficient time is given to the deliberation, or difficulty is found in classifying the problem. The deliberation is interrupted by a sudden extreme feeling of value attaching itself to one or the other of the contemplated alternatives. The feelings rush in and take the place of reason. In deciding by the woman's method we are scarcely able to see how we reached our conclusion and we often speak of such decisions as being intuitive. We simply feel that we should decide in a certain way and fortunately the feelings are frequently right. Women are supposed to decide in this way more often than men. They are supposed to have more perfectly developed instincts or intuitions. Their sentiment, it is said, vanquishes attempts to utilize sophisticated reasoning and the outcome is frequently wise and in every way as worthy of respect as are the results of more complete forms of deliberation.

A single illustration will make clear this method of deciding. If you are contemplating a change in method or speed of work, and are considering the alternatives,

you decide according to the woman's method if a sudden rush of feeling or rise of sentiment towards one of the alternatives cuts short your deliberation and settles it for you even though the evidence is not yet all in and though the "I will!" has not been resorted to.

This method is not at all confined to women but is a very common method of deciding any question in which feelings and emotions are prominent.

### Methods of Reaching a Decision:

### IV. Reason—Accident: Flipped-Coin Method

The flipped-coin method of deciding is like the woman's method in that in each the deliberation is suddenly cut short and a definite conclusion reached. The flipped-coin method differs from the woman's method, however, in that the factor which brings the deliberation to an end in the woman's method is an internal stimulus—a surging up of feeling; the factor which stops the deliberation in the flipped-coin method is an external stimulus accidentally arising at the critical moment.

If I am debating whether I shall continue my work or go to the ball game, I may feel that either course is not far wrong and yet I may be unable to decide which to pursue. In such a dilemma I sometimes flip a coin and let the chance falling of the coin settle the matter for me. This device for settling problems is typical and is intended to symbolize numerous decisions in which we permit some external happening to take the place of further deliberation. When our attempts to deliberate have been futile we sometimes "wait for

the question to settle itself." This may mean that we abandon all hope of settling the question; it may mean that we are waiting for further evidence; but it frequently means that we have merely ceased to deliberate and are waiting for a successful suggestion.

If you are debating as to whether you shall change your place of employment, and if you are having difficulty to decide, you may suddenly stop your deliberation and imitate the action of a fellow employee who has succeeded in solving the same problem for himself. The fact that you had attempted to decide the problem by deliberation and had failed puts you in a position where a chance suggestion acts most powerfully. Reason thus gives way to suggestion, whether the suggestion be given by such a device as flipping the coin, the example of a companion, or by some more worthy external cue to action.

This flipped-coin method is frequently employed in purchasing goods. If you are deliberating concerning the purchase of a fountain pen and the relative merits of the different makes have not enabled you to decide according to logical processes which one to purchase, the sight of an advertisement of one of the makes may settle the question for you. If you are passing a stationer's store and see one of the makes in the window, the sight of the pen may be a sufficient suggestion to end the deliberation and to secure the purchase of the pen.

The genial companion, the hail-fellow-well-met, uses this method of decision very extensively. Most of the things we do are not done for sufficient logical reasons. The man who refuses to give heed to the suggestions of

his fellows and to determine his actions accordingly is not a pleasant person to be with. Where logical reasons are adequate they should be followed. An attempt to consider, to deliberate, should be as universal as possible. But since most questions do not admit of logical determination, much opportunity is left for suggestion as supplementary to reason. This form of determination is perhaps more common in the business world than any of the types previously discussed. We start to reason, but end with suggestion.

Methods of Reaching a Decision:

V. Suggestion: Weather Vane

The method of deciding which involves no deliberation whatever is called Suggestion. The thing is accepted at once and acted upon without any hesitation and hence without any possibility or tendency to deliberate. People are moved by suggestion as a weather vane is turned by the wind. We are to consider Suggestion at length in our next chapter.

If I propose to you that you change your method of work—either as to quality or quantity—and if you accept the proposed change without weighing the merits of the case and without considering the rejection of the proposal, then you decide in a way that is properly designated as the working of suggestion. If I propose that you "quit slaving for your old boss" and "get into the band wagon and join forces with me," your acceptance is the result of suggestion unless you consider the advantages of remaining in your former position and consider also the disadvantages of entering my employ.

If I offer you my line of merchandise in such a way that my method of offering it or my "personal magnetism" are sufficient to cause you to buy without consideration, you then act upon suggestion. If the assertion in my advertisement, "Morgan and Wright tires are good tires," unsupported by any form of argumentation, should convince you that my tires are good tires, then your conclusion would be wholly due to my suggestion.

### Which of These Methods are Used Frequently and Which But Occasionally?

When we study the classifications of methods of deciding we see that the various classes differ first as to the prominence of deliberation, and second as to the manner in which the deliberation is completed or avoided. In Franklin's method the deliberation is fully developed; with each succeeding class this deliberation grows less till in the last class it is wholly absent. In the Benjamin Franklin method the deliberation is brought to an end by balancing the books; in the Bismarck method by a tug of the will; in the woman's method by a sudden awakening of the feelings and emotions; in the flipped-coin method by a chance suggestion; and in the weather-vane method deliberation is avoided altogether because of the extreme working of the suggested conclusion, end, or activity.

Every question you decide is settled according to one of the methods here considered. It becomes a matter of interest and importance to know which of these methods are used frequently and which ones but occasionally.

Formerly it was supposed that man was primarily

a reasoning creature and that he decided practically all questions according to either the Franklin or the Bismarck method. Suggestion was supposed to be characteristic of children and hysterical adults. A more careful study of the methods used in everyday experiences has brought out the fact that Franklin's method and the Bismarck method are not common methods in the usual experiences of life in the home, on the street, or in the business and industrial world. More common than either of these two are the methods of deciding in which deliberation is curtailed by some other shorter and simpler method of reaching a conclusion.

A study of the methods which we all use in deciding leads inevitably to the conclusion that some problems are solved in one way and some in another. There is perhaps no normal adult who does not employ at least occasionally each of the methods described above. Under certain conditions we use one method and under different conditions we use others. We vary from day to day and from moment to moment in our susceptibility to argumentation and to suggestion. In deciding certain classes of questions we do not feel satisfied till we have deliberated; in other instances we feel no such need for deliberation but respond with alacrity to appropriate suggestions; persons and classes of society differ also in the extent to which they use the different methods of deciding questions.

# CHAPTER VI

# THE SEVERAL TYPES OF SUGGESTION

OUTLINE

Short Circuits in the Nervous System are of Different Kinds, and may be Touched off by Different Kinds of Stimuli.

Types of Suggestion:

I. Suggestions Based on Instinctive Tendencies
II. Suggestions Based on Habit
III. Suggestions Based on Special Complexes
IV. Suggestions Based on the Crowd Mind

# CHAPTER VI

## THE SEVERAL TYPES OF SUGGESTION

The process of deliberation is likely to be interrupted, short-circuited, or interfered with before it is complete. Hence we have the various "types" of deliberation discussed in Chapter V.

Suggestion, on the contrary, is direct and rapid, and is not subject to similar interruptions. As has been seen in Chapter IV, suggestion follows lines of least resistance. It depends upon short circuits in the nervous system. The suggestion received is transferred directly into the motor centers, across short, open pathways in the nervous tissue. Once a process of this kind is started, it is extremely unlikely that it will be interrupted by anything, except a counter-suggestion.

But there are different forms of suggestion that may be distinguished. The "short circuits" in the nervous system are of different kinds. Some are inherited, some are the result of habit, some are "complexes" due to special conditions, some arise only on special occasions, as under hypnosis. All of these short circuits are capable of being touched off by proper stimulation, thus causing a person to act, as we say, by suggestion.

It will be worth while to consider some of the more important forms of suggestion. We cannot discuss all forms—there are too many. The characteristic forms are:

I. Suggestions based on instinctive tendencies.
II. Suggestions based on habit.
III. Suggestions based on special complexes.
IV. Suggestions based on the crowd mind.

These will be discussed in turn. It is to be remembered that suggestion always operates in the same *way*. It is always the same process. But the nerve-formations *on* which it operates have been acquired in different ways.

Types of Suggestion:

I. Suggestions Based on Instinctive Tendencies

Nature has endowed men with a number of response tendencies. When a finger approaches the eye, the eyelid closes. When the light is intense, the pupil of the eye contracts. We have many of these simple, reflex ways of responding to things.

Besides the simple reflexes man has other instinctive tendencies to react to things. These are exhibited in our elementary desires and emotions, and in those activities that have to do with the preservation of the individual or the perpetuation of the race. Psychologists at present are undecided as to how far our instincts go. But it is certain that we have natural tendencies to preserve ourselves, to beget and care for our kind, and to further our social standing. Man appears to have a tendency to acquire or possess objects, to hunt, to collect and hoard, to seek shelter or self-protection, to fight, to care for children, to collect together in groups, to imitate, to be curious, to feel abashed, supe-

rior, masterful or submissive, to manipulate or construct, to adorn himself, and to play.

Because we have these instinctive tendencies, we respond directly to certain kinds of stimulation. Instincts are based on short circuits in the nervous system. Hence an appeal to an instinct must be in the nature of a suggestion. It is quite useless to argue with an instinct.

In this connection we call to mind Tom Sawyer's device for getting the other boys to whitewash the fence for him. He could not represent the job to them as something which they ought to do, or which it would pay them to do. Whitewashing must be made to appear a highly *desirable* form of *play*. Tom uses suggestion based on the instincts of imitation, curiosity, and play. But let Mark Twain tell the story:

> But Tom's energy did not last. He began to think of the fun he had planned for this day, and his sorrows multiplied. . . . At this dark and hopeless moment an inspiration burst upon him! Nothing less than a great, magnificent inspiration.
>
> He took up his brush and went tranquilly to work. Ben Rogers hove in sight presently—the very boy, of all boys, whose ridicule he had been dreading. Ben's gait was the hop-skip-and-jump—proof enough that his heart was light and his anticipations high. He was eating an apple, and giving a long, melodious whoop, at intervals, followed by a deep-toned ding-dong-dong, ding-dong-dong, for he was personating a steamboat. As he drew near, he slackened speed, took the middle of the street, leaned far over to starboard and rounded to ponderously and with laborious pomp and circumstance —for he was personating the *Big Missouri,* and considered himself to be drawing nine feet of water. He was boat and captain and engine-bells combined, so he had to imagine himself standing on his own hurricane-deck giving the orders and executing them:
>
> . . . "Stop the stabboard! Ting-a-ling-ling! Stop the lab-

board! Come ahead on the stabboard! Stop her! Let your outside turn over slow! Ting-a-ling-ling! Chow-ow-ow! Get out that head-line! *Lively* now! Come—out with your spring-line—what 're you about there! Take a turn round that stump with the bight of it! Stand by that stage, now—let her go! Done with the engines, sir! Ting-a-ling-ling! Sh't! s'h't! sh't!" (trying the gauge-cocks).

Tom went on whitewashing—paid no attention to the steamboat. Ben stared a moment and then said:

"Hi-yi! You're up a stump, ain't you!"

No answer. Tom surveyed his last touch with the eye of an artist, then he gave his brush another gentle sweep and surveyed the result, as before. Ben ranged up alongside of him. Tom's mouth watered for the apple, but he stuck to his work. Ben said:

"Hello, old chap, you got to work, hey?"

Tom wheeled suddenly and said:

"Why, it's you, Ben! I warn't noticing."

"Say—I'm going in a-swimming, I am. Don't you wish you could? But of course you'd druther work—wouldn't you? Course you would!"

Tom contemplated the boy a bit, and said:

"What do you call work?"

"Why, ain't *that* work?"

Tom resumed his whitewashing, and answered carelessly:

"Well, maybe it is, and maybe it ain't. All I know is, it suits Tom Sawyer."

"Oh come, now, you don't mean to let on that you *like* it?"

The brush continued to move.

"Like it? Well, I don't see why I oughtn't to like it. Does a boy get a chance to whitewash a fence every day?"

That put the thing in a new light. Ben stopped nibbling his apple. Tom swept his brush daintily back and forth—stepped back to note the effect—added a touch here and there—criticized the effect again—Ben watching every move and getting more and more interested, more and more absorbed. Presently he said:

"Say, Tom, let *me* whitewash a little."

Tom considered, was about to consent; but he altered his mind:

"No—no—I reckon it wouldn't hardly do, Ben. You see, Aunt Polly's awful particular about this fence—right here on the street, you know—but if it was the back fence I wouldn't mind and *she* wouldn't. Yes, she's awful particular about this fence; it's got to be done very careful; I reckon there ain't one boy in a thousand, maybe two thousand, that can do it the way it's got to be done."

"No—is that so? Oh come, now—lemme just try. Only just a little—I'd let *you*, if you was me, Tom."

"Ben, I'd like to, honest injun; but Aunt Polly—well, Jim wanted to do it, but she wouldn't let him; Sid wanted to do it, and she wouldn't let Sid. Now don't you see how I'm fixed? If you was to tackle this fence and anything was to happen to it ——"

"Oh, shucks, I'll be just as careful. Now lemme try. Say—I'll give you the core of my apple."

"Well, here— No, Ben, now don't. I'm afeared ——"

"I'll give you *all* of it!"

Tom gave up the brush with reluctance in his face, but alacrity in his heart. And while the late steamer *Big Missouri* worked and sweated in the sun, the retired artist sat on a barrel in the shade close by, dangled his legs, munched his apple, and planned the slaughter of more innocents. There was no lack of material; boys happened along every little while; they came to jeer, but remained to whitewash. By the time Ben was fagged out, Tom had traded the next chance to Billy Fisher for a kite, in good repair; and when *he* played out, Johnny Miller bought in for a dead rat and a string to swing it with—and so on, and so on, hour after hour. And when the middle of the afternoon came, from being a poor poverty-stricken boy in the morning, Tom was literally rolling in wealth. He had beside the things before mentioned, twelve marbles, part of a jews'-harp, a piece of blue bottle-glass to look through, a spool cannon, a key that wouldn't unlock anything, a fragment of chalk, a glass stopper of a decanter, a tin soldier, a couple of tadpoles, six fire-crackers, a kitten with only one eye, a brass door-knob, a dog-collar —but no dog—the handle of a knife, four pieces of orange peel, and a dilapidated old window-sash.

He had had a nice, good, idle time all the while—plenty of company—and the fence had three coats of whitewash on it! If he

hadn't run out of whitewash, he would have bankrupted every boy in the village.

This story is eternally young because it illustrates a natural human tendency. Tom sells his young friends on the idea that whitewashing is *play,* and appeals by indirect suggestion to their tendency to play. He does not *argue* that whitewashing is fun; he *acts* as if it were fun, and thus appeals directly to instinct.

Wherever, in the business world, one has a proposition to advance that appeals directly to man's instincts, suggestion should be employed. Instinct, it has been said, is blind. In the same way it is also deaf. It has nothing to do, directly, with thought. Hence the natural appeal to instinct is by suggestion.

Types of Suggestion:

II. Suggestions Based on Habit

Besides man's inherited tendencies to action, he has many habitual ways of acting and thinking, acquired in the course of his experience. These become fixed into short-circuit, nervous pathways. William James speaks of habit as follows:

"'Habit is second nature! Habit is ten times nature,' the Duke of Wellington is said to have exclaimed; and the degree to which this is true no one can probably appreciate as well as one who is a veteran soldier himself. The daily drill and the years of discipline end by fashioning a man completely over again, as to most of the possibilities of his conduct.

"There is a story, which is credible enough, though it may not be true, of a practical joker, who, seeing a

discharged veteran carrying home his dinner, suddenly called out, 'Attention!' whereupon the man instantly brought his hands down, and lost his mutton and potatoes in the gutter. The drill had been thorough, and its effects had become embodied in the man's nervous structure."

And again, James refers to habit as the fly-wheel of human society:

"Habit is thus the enormous fly-wheel of society, its most precious conservative agent. . . . It alone prevents the hardest and most repulsive walks of life from being deserted by those brought up to tread therein. It keeps the fisherman and the deck-hand at sea through the winter; it holds the miner in his darkness, and nails the countryman to his log-cabin and his lonely farm through all the months of snow. . . . Already at the age of twenty-five you see the professional mannerism settling down on the young commercial traveller, on the young doctor, on the young minister, on the young counsellor-at-law. You see the little lines of cleavage running through the character, the tricks of thought, the prejudices, the ways of the 'shop,' in a word, from which the man can by-and-by no more escape than his coat-sleeve can suddenly fall into a new set of folds. On the whole, it is best he should not escape. It is well for the world that in most of us, by the age of thirty, the character has set like plaster, and will never soften again."

Since these things are true about man, it is important for us to recognize the fact. Men have habitual ways of acting, of manners and modes of work. They have habitual ways of thinking—about religion, politics,

social affairs, and what not. It is always easiest for men to think or act habitually. The salesman who has a product that fits in with men's habitual ways of doing things has an advantage over a man who sells a novel proposition. Men prefer the old ways.

Political orators have always understood the principle, in appealing for votes. The old customs, the old procedure, the good old party, the men and measures known and approved, are their stock in trade. The crafty Douglas, in his debates with Lincoln, constantly appealed to his audience on the basis of habit. Hear him speak:

> Prior to 1854 this country was divided into two great political parties, known as the Whig and Democratic parties. Both were national and patriotic, advocating principles that were universal in their application. An old line Whig could proclaim his principles in Louisiana and Massachusetts alike. Whig principles had no boundary sectional line; they were not limited by the Ohio River, nor by the line of the Free and Slave States, but applied and were proclaimed wherever the Constitution ruled or the American flag waved over the American soil. So it was, and so it is with the great Democratic party, which, from the days of Jefferson until this period, has proven itself to be the historic party of this nation. While the Whig and Democratic parties differed in regard to a bank, the tariff, distribution, the specie circular, and the sub-treasury, they agreed on the great slavery question which now agitates the Union. I say that the Whig party and the Democratic party agreed on this slavery question, while they differed on those matters of expediency to which I have referred. The Whig party and the Democratic party jointly adopted the Compromise measures of 1850 as the basis of a proper and just solution of this slavery question in all its forms. Clay was the great leader, with Webster on his right and Cass on his left, and sustained by the patriots in the Whig and Democratic ranks who had devised and enacted the Compromise measures of 1850.

In 1851 the Whig party and the Democratic party united in Illinois in adopting resolutions indorsing and approving the principles of the Compromise measures of 1850, as the proper adjustment of that question. In 1852, when the Whig party assembled in Convention at Baltimore for the purpose of nominating a candidate for the Presidency, the first thing it did was to declare the Compromise measures of 1850, in substance and in principle, a suitable adjustment of that question.

But—Lincoln has dared to assail the established parties, and set up a party of his own.

In 1854, Mr. Abraham Lincoln and Mr. Trumbull entered into an arrangement, one with the other, and each with his respective friends, to dissolve the old Whig party on the one hand, and to dissolve the old Democratic party on the other, and to connect the members of both into an Abolition party, under the name and disguise of a Republican party. The terms of that arrangement between Mr. Lincoln and Mr. Trumbull have been published to the world by Mr. Lincoln's special friend, James H. Matheny, Esq., and they were that Lincoln should have Shields's place in the United States Senate, which was then about to become vacant, and that Trumbull should have my seat when my term expired. Lincoln went to work to Abolitionize the old Whig party all over the state, pretending that he was then as good a Whig as ever; and Trumbull went to work in his part of the State preaching Abolitionism in its milder and lighter form, and trying to Abolitionize the Democratic party, and bring old Democrats handcuffed and bound hand and foot into the Abolition camp. In pursuance of the arrangement, the parties met at Springfield in October, 1854, and proclaimed their new platform.

Now, the whole point of this discussion—so familiar in political speeches—is that the *old* parties, Whigs and Democrats alike, were good and sound—because they were old and established. Lincoln is represented as the leader of a *new* and therefore dangerous party.

In business life the appeal to old and tried ways of doing things is always effective. After all, there is no way like the old way. The old firm, the old product, the old process,—these are always advertised as old and established. On the contrary, new products and methods are always subject to suspicion. The salesman who tries to introduce a method that seems novel, that calls for changes or alterations in routine, must *argue* his case. He cannot appeal by means of suggestion. He must prove his case, step by step.

Suggestion may accordingly act upon the short circuits of habit, in order to induce people to act. This form of suggestion is probably more used than any other, in all walks of life. Such suggestion requires no special finesse. Most of us use it, and are moved by it.

Types of Suggestion:

III. Suggestions Based on Special Complexes

There is a kind of insanity known as paranoia. In these cases the subject is "off" on some one idea. He believes, for instance, that he is being conspired against by some person or group—hence is very suspicious of anything or anybody that may be connected in his mind with the "conspiracy." Otherwise the patient may seem perfectly sane.

All people, even the most sane, are likely to be "touchy" on certain subjects. One man cannot endure music, another is "hipped" on spiritualism, another will leave the table if he be offered mock-turtle soup. Prejudice against particular people or in favor of particular people, particular causes, particular objects or conditions, are examples of the same attitude.

The nervous pathways that underlie these special attitudes are called "complexes." They have only to be touched by suggestion in order to operate. You may, for instance, be getting along very nicely with a prospect when you happen to mention the fact that you are a graduate of Atlantis College. Quite accidentally you have touched off a "complex." You hear the college bitterly assailed. Everybody and everything connected with it is bad. Perhaps the prospect has had some experience with a member of the faculty or administration that has embittered him. Or, you may be talking with another man and mention taxes. He is a single-taxer, with a strong emotional bias. He breaks into an oration in favor of the single-tax system, and conjoins it with a tirade against existing systems. You have touched off a complex, and for the time being your attempt to make a sale is interfered with.

An excellent example of the working of a complex is given us by Shakespeare in *Othello:*

In Scene III of Act III Othello and Iago enter, and Cassio, who has been beseeching Desdemona to get him forgiven for his escapade, withdraws, too shame-faced to meet his commander. At this Iago exclaims as if to himself,—

"I like not that.
OTH. What dost thou say?
IAGO. Nothing, my lord; or if—I know not what.
OTH. Was not that Cassio parted from my wife?
IAGO. Cassio, my lord! No, sure, I cannot think it;
That he would steal away so guilty like,
Seeing you coming."

When they are left alone after Desdemona's successful intervention on Cassio's behalf, Iago, with every appearance of reticence, contrives to scatter fresh seeds of suspicion in his master's soul.

"Iago. My noble lord,——
Oth. What dost thou say, Iago?
Iago. Did Michael Cassio, when you woo'd my lady, know of your love?
Oth. He did, from first to last; why dost thou ask?
Iago. But for a satisfaction of my thought;
No further harm.
Oth. Why of thy thought, Iago?
Iago. I did not think he had been acquainted with her.
Oth. O, yes, and went between us very oft.
Iago. Indeed!
Oth. Indeed! Ay, indeed; discern'st thou aught in that?
Is he not honest?
Iago. Honest, my lord?
Oth. Honest, ay, honest.
Iago. My lord, for aught I know.
Oth. What dost thou think?
Iago. Think, my lord!
Oth. Think, my lord?
By heaven, he echoes me
As if there were some monster in his thought
Too hideous to be shown. Thou dost mean something;
I heard thee say but now, thou likest not that,
When Cassio left my wife: What didst not like?
And when I told thee how he was in my counsel
In my whole course of wooing, thou criedst, "Indeed!"
And didst contract and purse thy brow together,
As if thou hadst shut up in thy brain
Some horrible conceit: If thou dost love me,
Show me thy thought.
Iago. My lord, you know I love you.
Oth. I think thou dost.
And for I know, thou'rt full of love and honesty
And weigh'st thy words before thou givest them breath,
Therefore these stops of thine fright me the more:
For such things in a false disloyal knave
Are tricks of custom; but in a man that's just

They're close dilations working from the heart,
That passion cannot rule.

IAGO. For Michael Cassio
I dare be sworn I think that he is honest.

OTH. I think so too.

IAGO. Men should be what they seem;
Or those that be not, would they might seem none!

OTH. Certain, men should be what they seem.

IAGO. Why then I think Cassio's an honest man.

OTH. Nay, yet there's more in this;
I prithee, speak to me as to thy thinkings,
As thou dost ruminate, and give thy worst of thoughts
The worst of words."

This is a "slant-wise" or indirect form of suggestion. Iago knows that Othello has a complex—that he is inclined to be suspicious and jealous where his wife is concerned. Note how cleverly Iago goes about awakening this complex, by giving it something to feed upon. Suspicion is fastened upon Cassio, without any reference to the facts. Iago does not awaken a deliberative process in Othello; he does not ask him to judge, in view of such and such facts, whether Cassio is not too intimate with Desdemona. He awakens, rather, Othello's complex, and cleverly operates upon his suspicious tendency.

In the business world such "slant-wise" suggestion is likely to occur, and may occur readily. A typewriter salesman tells me that he once made a sale over his competitor by playing upon a complex. The prospect had a strong prejudice, emotionally colored, against a certain famous manufacturer of automobiles. He hated the man and everything connected with his business. The typewriter man told his prospect, casually, that the

auto manufacturer favored his competitor's machines, and used many of them. "Huh," was the response, "that doesn't prove that they are any good." Once the idea of the X typewriter had been associated in the prospect's mind with the complex against the manufacturer, he was disposed to think unfavorably of the X typewriter. And so by this strategy, the salesman made his sale. Some criticism might be made of such procedure, but at least it illustrates how complexes, once aroused, operate in affecting people's responses.

### Types of Suggestion:

### IV. Suggestions Based on the Crowd Mind

Reference has been made in Chapter III to the influence of the crowd on the individual person. Recent psychology has taught us much about the crowd mind. We know that a man will do and say things, in a crowd, that he would not do and say by himself. A person in a crowd is less critical, has fewer inhibitions, and *is more suggestible* than he would be ordinarily.

A man "out with the gang" will gamble more, drink more, laugh more, and "cuss" more than he would if left to his own inclination. He is amenable to the influences of others through suggestion. At a religious revival individuals are similarly influenced by the attitudes and acts of their fellows. Men in a mob, excited by a leader, will destroy property and even do murder, although as individuals such acts would be far from their thoughts.

Although people only occasionally assemble in mobs or crowds, there is a public or mass mind to which all of us who read the newspapers belong. Consider the wave of enthusiasm that has swept the country follow-

ing the exploits of Lindbergh. He has—and justly—been made a hero overnight. The Hickman murder case represents the opposite operation of the mass mind. He is universally condemned. Enthusiasms and aversions sweep through the public mind from time to time carrying individual minds with them.

The Klondike gold rush offers an excellent example of mass enthusiasm. One writer (Down, in the *Cornhill Magazine,* 1898) has described the rush in these terms:

> The gold fever set in with fury and attacked all classes. Men in good positions, with plenty of money to spend on an outfit, and men with little beyond the amount of their fare, country men and city men, clerks and professional men without the faintest notion of the meaning of "roughing it," flocked in impossible numbers to secure a passage. There were no means of taking them. Even in distant New York, the offices of railroad companies and local agencies were besieged by anxious inquirers eager to join the throng. . . . At the different Pacific ports every available vessel was pressed into the service, and still the wild rush could not be met. . . . Three times the original price was offered for the passage, and one passenger accepted an offer of $1,500 for the ticket for which he had paid only $150.
>
> This, however, was only the beginning of the rush. Three more steamers were announced to sail in August for the mouth of the Yukon, and at least a dozen more for the Lynn Canal, among which were old tubs, which, after being tied up for years, were now overhauled and refitted for the voyage north.
>
> . . . A frightful state of congestion followed as each successive steamer on its arrival at the head of the Lynn Canal poured forth its crowds of passengers and added to the enormous loads of freight already accumulated. Matters became so serious that on August 10 the United States Secretary of the Interior, having received information that 3000 persons with 2000 tons of baggage and freight were there waiting to cross the mountains to the Yukon, and that

many more were preparing to join them, issued a warning to the public (following that of the Dominion Government of the previous week) in which he called attention to the exposure, privation, suffering, and danger incident to the journey at that advanced period of the season, and further referred to the gravity of the possible consequences to people detained in the mountainous wilderness during five or six months of Arctic winter, where no relief could reach them.

The California gold rush of earlier days was similar in character. Perhaps these are extreme instances of the operation of the crowd mind. It assuredly is the case that the slogan "everybody's doing it" has a great effect on individuals. Hence our fads and fashions, our mass excitements and enthusiasms. Many writers have commented upon the effect of the crowd mind on individuals during the Great War.

In the world of industry similar phenomena are seen. Red neckties appear, become the rage, and everybody must have one. "King Tut" fashions appear and everybody falls in line. A recent phenomenon was the sale of the book, "The Story of Philosophy," by Durant. Nobody has yet been able to discover what gave this book its tremendous vogue—it happened to "catch on."

Similarly a product that once gets started is adopted by one or more prominent concerns—say a new calculating machine—gains in sales power as it comes to be generally known. The individual tends to be influenced by the example of others. A man, several of whose friends have radio sets, is by consequence of their influence a much better prospect for the radio salesman.

Clever salesmen and advertisers constantly seek to influence prospects by telling them how many people

use their product. Under the influence of the crowd or mass, individuals become highly suggestible, and tend to think as others think and desire what others desire.

It is important that these different types of suggestion be studied, since they open up many avenues to the business man who desires to influence others.

A suggestion, it will be seen, has two sides: it is a hint or cue from the *speaker,* operating upon a short-circuit pathway in the *hearer.* The hint or cue must therefore not be an argument, or exposition, but must have the "of course-ness" natural to suggestion. The speaker must not seem to doubt, question, hedge or qualify,—but must speak as if, of course, the thing were so and so,—the cherries are good, the pattern is in style, the soap is the same good old soap. Tom Sawyer seemed to take it for granted that whitewashing is an interesting game to play at—his demeanor expressed no doubt. This assuredness on the part of the speaker or writer is essential to the effective stimulation of a short-circuit response.

# CHAPTER VII

# WHEN TO USE ARGUMENTS IN INFLUENCING MEN

OUTLINE

Both Argument and Suggestion are Effective in Influencing Men

I. Argument Preferred in Exploiting any New Thing: Educational Campaign

II. Argument Preferred in Exploiting any Article or Device that Calls for Changes of Habit, Routine, or Method on the Part of the User

III. Argument Preferred in Securing Relatively Important Acts

IV. Argument Preferred in Exploiting Anything Having Unusual Talking Points

V. Argument Preferred When It is the Exclusive Form of Persuasion

VI. Argument is Necessary in Influencing Professional Buyers

VII. Argument Preferred When the Article is Complicated, or its Uses Not Readily Comprehended

VIII. Argument Sometimes an Effective Form of Flattery

IX. Hollingworth's List of Conditions that Demand Argumentation

X. "System's" List of Conditions that Demand Argumentation

# CHAPTER VII

## WHEN TO USE ARGUMENTS IN INFLUENCING MEN

### Both Argument and Suggestion are Effective in Influencing Men

The upshot of the discussion so far is to show that argument and suggestion are natural methods of influencing men. Both are effective. But argument is sometimes most effective, at other times suggestion is most effective. When shall the one or the other be used?

The conditions under which men work are so complicated that we cannot clearly indicate all of the situations that call for argument or suggestion respectively. Our knowledge of psychology, too, is incomplete. It is possible, however, to draw a sort of chart for the guidance of the business man that will be, practically, very useful. As the nature of the two forms of appeal are better understood by the business man, he will come to use the one or the other almost by "instinct," as the occasion demands. Thus, it may be necessary for an individual, in the course of a sales talk, to shift suddenly from suggestion to argument, or *vice versa.* A little practice, with close attention to what is said and done, will soon make the executive, salesman, or advertiser skillful in the use of the two methods.

In the discussion that follows most of the illustrations will be drawn from the field of advertising. There

are two good reasons for this: our knowledge of the psychology of advertising is farther advanced than other branches of business psychology, and advertising has a definiteness and concreteness about it that make it good for illustrative purposes. It will be understood, of course, that the principles discussed hold good in all cases where men seek to influence each other, and not merely in advertising.

### I. Argument Preferred in Exploiting any New Thing: Educational Campaign

Argument is needed in exploiting any new product or proposition. In general, the more novel the article, the more imperative the demand for argumentative appeal. A new kind of phonograph must be justified in competition with existing makes, but an entirely new article—say a device for moistening the air in a house—must be very carefully explained and argued in detail.

There can be few exceptions to this rule. People will buy the familiar and favored brands of goods unless reasons are given why the new should be tried. People will not buy new devices unless clearly convinced of their value. I secured a phonograph and records for the language-phone method of teaching a foreign language, because of argument. Suggestion would not do, because it had no short circuits, no established action-tendencies, to work upon. I purchased a radio set that was new to me, because I was shown by argument its peculiar advantages over other makes. Suggestion could not have moved me; argument was required.

In exploiting any new brand or new make of a well-known article, argument should be used in presenting

the new features, at least until they become familiar. Every time a new Buick model appears, its new features are carefully described. A new form of Ivory Soap is sold by the help of argument. This is sound procedure. If a new type of loud-speaker is put on the market, which has the feature of reproducing bass notes in full amplitude, this fact should be presented in the form of an argument to the prospective buyer.

The fact that an article is *new* will not—by itself—recommend it to the public. People generally—the great mass of people—prefer to purchase known and stable goods. The new thing must have something to recommend it, if it is to gain public favor. Hence the new features should be played up, the public should be persuaded by argument to give the new article a trial because of its special merits.

### II. Argument Preferred in Exploiting Any Article or Device that Calls for Changes of Habit, Routine, or Method on the Part of the User

This rule holds good for all devices—such as office machinery, filing devices, etc.—that demand some change in established ways of doing things. Most people are very conservative when it comes to changing their habitual methods. The salesman who tries to sell a new office device cannot overcome this inertia by suggestion. He is proposing that the concern change its methods, learn to do things in a new way. This people will not do unless the advantages of the change are shown to them clearly. The saving of time, effort, or money, or the gain in accuracy, must be clearly demonstrated by argument.

I know an old lady who refused to have anything to do with a vacuum sweeper. The old method of cleaning suited her. She knew what a broom would do. She would not even allow her son to give her a vacuum cleaner as a present. It was not until she actually saw the dirt removed from her rugs by a vacuum sweeper that she was moved, through her pride of cleanliness, to use one. Typewriters, adding machines, modern accounting systems, made their way only slowly, at first, in the business world. They displaced older methods, and hence salesmen had to argue on their superior merits.

Whether in the field of commerce or of industry, arguments are necessary in persuading men to change their customs and habits. The introduction of the piece-rate system into a community accustomed to fixed wages demands arguments. To induce men to enter unknown fields of activity demands an educational campaign based on arguments.

### III. Argument Preferred in Securing Relatively Important Acts

Argumentation is the only effective method of inducing men to perform important acts. I would spend a nickel upon the merest suggestion that I should do so. I would not spend a thousand dollars upon suggestion but only as the result of deliberation following the presentation of arguments. In inducing people to spend money, arguments are essential if the amount of the purchase is any appreciable proportion of their total capital. In inducing people to purchase, the power of suggestion decreases directly with the increase of the

proportion of the cost of the article to their total wealth. The working of suggestion is then not dependent directly upon the size of the purchase, but upon the proportion of the cost to the total wealth. It may mean as much for me to purchase a current magazine as for a capitalist to purchase a block of new stock. In such an instance suggestion might be equally effective in inducing me to purchase the magazine and the capitalist to purchase an interest in a seasoned stock.

### IV. Argument Preferred in Exploiting Anything Having Unusual Talking Points

Occasionally staples or specialties which have altogether unusual talking points are placed on the market. Their price, for instance, may be conspicuously lower than that of competing goods. Or they may have other very distinct advantages. When this is the case, everything is to be gained by arguing the points of superiority.

The salesman who had a refrigerating device that was noiseless would surely not fail to exploit this point of superiority. The man whose food product is full of vitamins will, so long as vitamins are so much talked about, not fail to argue the merit of his goods on that ground.

When goods have such talking points of price or quality as those here cited they should be used as the basis for arguments for the purchase of the goods. These particular strong points should be emphasized and so presented to the possible customers that they will be influenced to compare these goods with the competing lines. The customers should be led to use logical

reasoning, for if they do the result of their deliberation will be a definite balancing of accounts in favor of the goods with the unusual arguments. What is said of selling goods may be said of all attempts to influence men. If there are altogether unusual and convincing arguments available they should be utilized as far as possible. If an attempt is being made to induce workmen to change from fixed salaries to the piece-rate system and also to increase their output very materially, the men should be shown by clear and convincing arguments that their wages would be permanently increased by the proposed change.

### V. Argument Preferred When It is the Exclusive Form of Persuasion

Possible customers are subjected ordinarily to more influences than that of advertising. They see others purchasing the goods or hear of their friends purchasing them, and are thus subjected to the influence of imitation. The salesman attempts to sell them the advertised goods and so brings his personal influence to bear upon them. They inspect the goods and so supplement the words of the advertisements with observation. They may have had other and favorable experiences with the goods or the house and so in one way or another they are predisposed to do that which the advertising attempts to induce them to do. With customers thus predisposed to purchase, suggestion may be sufficient, but where some influence other than advertising is not exerted and where the customers are not predisposed to make the purchase, there is need of "reason-why" copy,

of "data-built" copy. Facts, data, reasons, must be presented in sufficient abundance to enable the uninterested possible customer to overcome his indifference and to see why it is to his interest to purchase the goods.

Occasionally advertising is the exclusive selling plan. This is frequently the exclusive method employed by mail-order houses. In such instances it is wise to present arguments pretty fully so that the readers may have adequate data for accepting or rejecting the goods. The advertisement may well be of the sort spoken of as "reason-why copy," "data-built copy," etc.

### VI. Argument is Necessary in Influencing Professional Buyers

In selling to professional buyers mere suggestion is not sufficient. Suggestion has its place here but there is absolute necessity for "reasons why." The merchandise must be shown to meet the demands of the consumers of such goods. The professional buyer habitually analyzes and compares, at least more than ordinary purchasers. The goods offered do not stand out in his mind as unrelated things, but they are seen in relation to other goods of the same class. The professional buyer does not purchase merchandise because it is *good,* but because it is *better.* In order that he may be assisted to formulate this judgment of *better* the merchant must furnish him with adequate data.

What has been said of methods of selling to professional buyers may be applied directly to methods of selling technical equipment and all goods that are sold strictly according to specifications.

### VII. Argument Preferred When the Article is Complicated, or its Uses Not Readily Comprehended

An article like chewing gum is simple and obvious. It requires little explanation or argumentation—unless some new feature like the package is to be introduced. But a system of cost accounting, or a form of life insurance, is by nature complex. It merits must be fully explained and emphasized.

A salesman, for instance, selling stock in a corporation to manufacture a new gasoline motor, would be compelled to go to great lengths to make clear the merits of the new engine. He would probably make a demonstrating model, have charts and diagram, and compile letters and citations from engineering authorities, in the effort to prove his case. Suggestion would be utterly futile in such a situation.

In any case of a proposition that is complex, the burden of proof placed upon the salesman, or the promotor, is enormous. Here, above all else, the power of exposition, or clear demonstration, is called into play. The salesman should first of all get the uses and the advantages of the proposition clearly before him. He must then consider in what order the points should be presented to make the explanation easy to follow. Next, he should consider each point by itself, and study how to make it understandable to others, by the simplest method, and the method that takes least time and effort.

It should especially be remembered that the average person will not willingly follow a discussion that is obscure. He must be interested at every step. Too much "talk" will weary him. Graphic, concrete meth-

ods of illustrating and explaining should be used wherever possible.

### VIII. Argument Sometimes an Effective Form of Flattery

Argumentation is often advisable because people like to assume that they are following their reason. The arguments in favor of an automobile may not be comprehended and yet after reading the arguments the reader may decide to purchase the particular make because he assumes that the arguments would convince him if he could understand them. In advertisements of Grape Nuts the statement, "There's a reason," has weight even though the reader has no idea as to what the reason is to which reference seems to be made. We often demand that appeals should be made to the reason and until such an appeal has been made we are unwilling to decide. We are flattered by attempts to convince us with reasons and so the "reason-why" copy is more successful in advertising than one might anticipate even in instances where decisions are not the result of deliberation. The mere presence of arguments may often allay suspicion, though not an argument is read. Even where the arguments are read, their significance may not be appreciated in the least and yet the reader may be so flattered by the presence of the arguments that they are as effective in securing a decision as they would be if the arguments were fully understood.

### IX. Hollingworth's List of Conditions that Demand Argumentation

"Argument . . . is especially fitted, by its nature and by the way it is reacted to, . . . for articles which

are in themselves, or from the use to which they are put, impersonal, utilitarian, instrumental; and for articles which are intended not so much to fill present needs only, but also to create new needs or desires—such articles as books, plows, buttons, hammers, trucks, etc.—in general, to those things which partake of the nature of a tool."

### X. "System's" List of Conditions that Demand Argumentation

*System* for September, 1912, in "How to Advertise to Men," attempts to classify the conditions in advertising that demand dependence upon an argumentative form of copy. The conclusion is reached that the copy should be argumentative whenever the "advertisements are needed to induce an unintended expenditure of money, or needed to bring about a radical change in a man's usual way of buying, or an innovation in his habits—as buying from a dealer not usually patronized by him, buying by mail instead of from a dealer, having an article made to order instead of buying ready-made, or *vice versa,* or hunting for a store that can supply the article."

# CHAPTER VIII

## WHEN TO USE SUGGESTION IN INFLUENCING MEN

OUTLINE

I. Suggestion Preferred When the Article Appeals to Elementary Impulses or Instincts
II. Suggestion Preferred in Cases of Articles that Appeal to People's Habits of Thought and Action
III. Suggestion Preferred for Articles that Appeal to Special Interests, Prejudices, or Complexes
IV. Suggestion Preferred for Articles of Fashion, for Fads, and Things in Style
V. Suggestion Preferred When Inadequate Time is Given for Arguments
VI. Suggestion Preferred as a Supplementary Method of Convincing
VII. Suggestion Preferred in Dealing with the General Public
VIII. Suggestion Preferred for Securing Immediate Action
IX. Hollingworth's List of Conditions in Selling Goods that Demand Suggestion
X. Argument or Suggestion: Résumé

# CHAPTER VIII

## WHEN TO USE SUGGESTION IN INFLUENCING MEN

### I. Suggestion Preferred When the Article Appeals to Elementary Impulses or Instincts

The great psychologist, William James, in speaking of instinct, makes this remark: *"Now, why do the various animals do what seem to us such strange things,* in the presence of such outlandish stimuli? Why does the hen, for example, submit herself to the tedium of incubating such a fearfully uninteresting set of objects as a nestful of eggs, unless she have some sort of a prophetic inkling of the result? . . . We can only interpret the instincts of brutes by what we know of instincts in ourselves. . . . To the broody hen the notion would probably seem monstrous that there should be a creature in the world to whom a nestful of eggs was not the utterly fascinating and precious and never-to-be-too-much-sat-upon-object which it is to her."

Thus things that satisfy our elementary desires, impulses, tastes, instincts, make a direct and irresistible appeal of their own. No argument is required to make us understand that an orange tastes good, that personal adornment is desirable, that hunting is good sport, or that the approval of others is worth seeking. The person who advertises or sells food that appeals to people's

tastes, or articles that appeal to fundamental instincts, is not called upon to argue, but to suggest.

This rule holds good so long as the articles are easily within the means of the prospective buyer. Argument must supplement suggestion where the article is expensive. But in any case the need of showing that the food is tasty and satisfying, that the article will adorn or beautify, is of first importance. People respond to such appeals immediately, by a natural reaction. Suggestion in such cases may be direct. "Do you like tasty oranges?" "Beautify your complexion by our treatment," "This is the way to be popular." In general, pictures are most helpful in this field. Tasty articles of food well illustrated, pictures of well-dressed men and women, carry the suggestion very effectively. Avoid too many words in making a suggestive appeal.

### II. Suggestion Preferred in Cases of Articles that Appeal to People's Habits of Thought and Action

Articles whose nature and uses are widely known can be exploited by suggestion. Argument is not called for. You have used this soap. You know the merits of our baking powder, you are acquainted with the merits of this adding machine. How desirable to have these things at hand—order today, before you forget about it. No need to argue the merits of the goods—suggest them; no need to argue the advantages of using them—suggest their constant use.

People's religious, political, and patriotic habits of thought make them amenable to suggestive appeal. A clergyman can often do more to quell a riot than a whole squad of policemen. He does not argue, he ap-

peals to their habits and customs. The political orator, as has been seen, uses suggestion based on old habits of thought. People are in the habit of thinking patriotically, and will therefore respond to patriotic appeals very strongly where occasion arises.

Likewise in the business world suggestion, directed to habit, may be a great moving force. The appeal of an employer to his men to stand by their old friends and old customs, and not to be led astray by strange reformers, always has great force. The speaker in such a case pleads, exhorts, commands, or directs—he does not argue. Such appeals are clearly suggestive in nature. Old friends, old ways, old things, old days—these are moving forces in the thought of any man. Touch them off, and they act of themselves. A suggestion to a man who likes to sing will set him to singing; a suggestion to a man who is a student of history, will set him to talking history; a suggestion to one who is familiar with Best Paint will send him to get some Best Paint to use.

In advertising goods thoroughly known, argument is often superfluous and mere suggestion is adequate. Most magazine readers are convinced that Ivory Soap is a good soap. All that is left for the manufacturer to do is to give the suggestion which will lead to the purchase. If it is deemed wise to convince the public that the familiar goods possess a particularly desirable quality this may often be accomplished by suggestion instead of by argumentation, provided the goods are already well established in the confidence of the people. A familiar example is that of the attempt to convince the public that Ivory Soap is particularly pure and

delicate. This suggestion of purity and delicacy is given by means of artistic pictures showing cultivated people using the soap and using it for delicate work. The suggestion is also given by means of the repetition of the phrase, 99 44/100 per cent pure. General readers are affected by this suggestion, and have come to the conclusion that Ivory Soap is particularly pure even though they are quite unable to cite a single reason for such a conclusion.

In our task of persuading men, perhaps in most instances, we attempt to get them to do what they already know they should do. The superintendent does not have to convince his men that they should render better service. The function of the superintendent is rather to get men to do what they already know they should do and what in fact they themselves desire to do. The right suggestion helps the men and encourages them to do what without suggestion is impossible for them. The suggestion to the desired action needs to be frequently repeated that it may be constantly in mind. This repeating of the same suggestion over and over again has a cumulative effect which is greater than could be secured by lengthy or by diverse arguments.

### III. Suggestion Preferred for Articles that Appeal to Special Interests, Prejudices, or Complexes

Men's special interests, biases, prejudices, "sore spots," and favoritisms are no doubt often bad. Our present business is merely to see things as they actually are. However much we may object to political, religious, social, racial and class prejudices, they do exist and are moving forces in many men. In a similar way

special interests, such as an interest in radio, or in the promotion of Seventh Day Adventism, exist and render many people amenable to special forms of suggestion.

These special "complexes" and hates and enthusiasms may be an advantage or a disadvantage. It is always dangerous to oppose a man's enthusiasms. If a man has a complex against the theory of evolution the subject better be avoided. If he is a rabid anti-prohibitionist one would better not speak with enthusiasm of the Volstead Law—if business is to go forward. The experienced manager will know of the existence of these special phobias or enthusiasms, and avoid them or use them as his purposes demand.

It is easy to sell a book on Spiritualism to a Spiritualist. It is easier to sell golf clubs to an enthusiast than to an outsider. Where such complexes exist they can be easily played upon by suggestion. This is constantly being done.

The wise business man who is also a good citizen will have his own views of the radicals and extremists, and will govern himself accordingly. In any case it is well to remember that complexes render people especially amenable to the influence of suggestion.

### IV. Suggestion Preferred for Articles of Fashion, for Fads, and Things in Style

Every alert woman wants to be in style. Every modern man wants to be up-to-date. Fads in clothes, in games, in books, in sports, in slang and what-not engage innumerable followers. Happy is the merchant who can make his product the fashion, or the publisher who finds one of his books "the rage."

Advertisers and salesmen have always recognized, in some fashion, the influence of the mass mind in furthering suggestion. After the flight of Lindbergh to Paris it was possible to find in this country literally hundreds of thousands of ads in which the hero or the flight were mentioned or suggested. Such advertisers felt—and they were so far correct—that any mention of the event would attract the attention of readers to their ads.

It will be understood that articles of fad and fashion are not generally argued about. "There is no disputing concerning matters of taste," runs an old proverb. Similarly, the style is the style—and that is all there is to it. In selling any product it is well to indicate that the article is being widely used, has become the fashion, and is to be found in all up-to-date houses or establishments. The individual will be automatically moved to adopt an article or device generally used by others. Knowledge of this fact is a real asset to the business man.

### V. Suggestion Preferred When Inadequate Time is Given for Arguments

An argument cannot be presented in as brief a form as a suggestion. If people would stop to read the arguments appearing in advertisements, then doubtless all advertisers would make extensive appeals to reason. By careful investigation it has been determined that but few people spend much time in reading advertisements. It has been estimated that the average reader does not spend more than ten minutes in reading the advertisements appearing in a single issue of a monthly maga-

zine, a daily or a weekly paper. That is to say, the reader of a magazine glances through one hundred pages of advertisements in less than ten minutes. Advertisements in daily papers are read equally fast. A common practice is to turn over all the pages, to glance at all the advertisements, excepting the smallest ones, but to read few or none of them. For this great class of potential buyers arguments are usually lost. If a single suggestion is given by means of a picture or of display type, the advertisement may be effective with thousands of persons who would not take the time or the trouble to read the arguments.

The question concerning the relative merits of arguments and suggestions in advertisements is not whether people are affected more by the reading of arguments than by the reading of the suggestions. The question is whether the argument or the suggestion is the more effective method of appealing to the average man who reads all sorts of publications, who rides on street cars and passes by the bill-boards. The probable answer is that most people are affected more by suggestions in advertisements than by argumentations simply because they will not take time to read the arguments to the same extent that they do take time to read the suggestions. The long argument is read by a few and these few are much impressed; the short argument is read by many and they are all a little affected. Other things being equal, the *number* of persons who will read an advertisement decreases directly as the size of the copy increases. The *effect* produced by the reading of the advertisement increases directly with the size of the copy and the time consumed in reading it.

## VI. Suggestion Preferred as a Supplementary Method of Convincing

Much advertising is intended not to sell goods, but to supplement other selling methods. This is true not only of street car and poster advertising, but also of much advertising in magazines and newspapers. The supplementary nature of advertising is particularly apparent in advertising such things as automobiles, typewriters, dictographs, and in all forms of insurance and financial advertising. The function of the advertisement in such instances is to get the potential purchaser in a favorable attitude toward the commodity and then the consummation of the sale is left to the salesman, the booklet or catalogue, or to some other person or selling device. This supplementary advertising may sometimes use arguments, but its chief dependence is upon some form of suggestion.

Street-car and out-door advertising is in the main only supplementary and hence suggestion is extensively used, while logical arguments play a less important part. In advertising goods which are to be purchased at a later time and only after inspection, it is not necessary to convince the customer by reasons presented in the advertisement but to suggest some single fact which may be sufficiently compelling to cause him to inspect the goods. In this way the supplementary advertising greatly simplifies the task of the clerk, the drummer, or the selling plan whatever it be.

In persuading men, logical reasoning is practically never to be used alone. After the arguments have been presented skillful suggestion should be used as a supple-

ment. This supplement often changes threatened defeat into success. The skillful pleader before a jury, the wise politician, and the successful superintendent of men, all alike are compelled to resort to suggestion to supplement their arguments in their attempts to influence men.

### VII. Suggestion Preferred in Dealing with the General Public

If we should divide all customers into the two classes, professional buyers and the general public, then in appealing to this latter class special attention should be given to suggestion. In an advertisement containing both a good suggestion and a good argument, the suggestion is read often and the argument rarely. From infancy we have been accustomed to respond to suggestions so frequently that we follow this habit in purchasing merchandise even though we ought to make such purchases only after due deliberation. Deliberation is a process of thought which is very elaborate and very exhausting. The general purchaser—the housewife—does not ordinarily rise to such an undertaking but contents herself with a process very closely approximating the working of pure suggestion. Even though she begins to deliberate, the process is likely to be cut short by the effect of a clever suggestion. A suggestive picture means more to her than any possible massing of facts and figures. Such a suggestive phrase as "Spotless Town" when associated in her mind with Sapolio becomes more effective in selling her a washing compound than any statement concerning its chemical purity. The suggestive force of imitation is with her

so powerful that she follows the actions of others with more confidence than the findings of her own deliberations.

### VIII. Suggestion Preferred for Securing Immediate Action

President Hadley of Yale some time since delivered an address in the Auditorium at Chicago. At the time he was suffering from a very severe cold. In the midst of his remarks he stopped, remarked that he was a victim of a cold and cleared his throat. Immediately not less than a hundred persons in the audience began to clear their throats and to cough till it was difficult to hear him speak for some minutes. Not long ago I was in a company where a man in a conspicuous position yawned. Immediately a score of persons were affected by the suggestion and unconsciously imitated his action. The peculiarity of suggested action is that the action follows at once upon the giving of the suggestion. The result of presenting arguments is deliberation with its attendant hesitation.

Where any sort of an educational campaign is to be waged preceding the desired action, arguments are desirable. When immediate action is sought and no attempt is being made to educate, suggestion is preferred. In creating sentiment in favor of a magazine, data must be presented concerning the virtues of the magazine. When the magazine is out and on the newsstands and the purpose of the advertisement is to secure immediate purchase, then suggestion is superior to argument. The greatest success in securing immediate sales of a magazine by means of advertising is reputed

to have been the advertising done by the Delineator when they forced us to purchase by the use of the phrase, "Just get the Delineator!"

### IX. Hollingworth's List of Conditions in Selling Goods that Demand Suggestion

Hollingworth's classification is not so much a list of the conditions that in selling goods make suggestion advisable, as it is a classification of the kinds of goods that may be sold advantageously by suggestion. According to the classification which he recently proposed, suggestion is well adapted:

"1. For all *personal* articles, the use of which is *intimate* and *private,* as toilet articles, gifts, stationery, etc.

"2. For articles of *luxury, display* and *adornment,* as jewelry, fancy dress goods, feathers and plumes, flowers, etc.

"3. For articles enjoyed *in themselves* or *for their own sake,* rather than for remote service which they may render, as drinks, musical instruments, sweetmeats, toys, etc.

"4. For articles calculated to promote the *bodily safety* of the individual or of those dependent on him, as disinfectants, safety devices, insurance, weapons of defense, etc.

"5. For *all food products.*

"6. For all clothing which tends to be ornamental rather than utilitarian in character, as ties, colors, laces, canes, etc."

### X. Argument or Suggestion: Résumé

To influence men effectively is no simple task. Some men seem naturally gifted with this power and are able

to accomplish as much intuitively as are other men after much study devoted to the subject. The men with such talents as well as those less generously endowed may increase their skill in influencing men by proceeding scientifically at their task. The two methods available for influencing men are those of argument and suggestion. Which general type to employ is a problem that cannot be easily solved. In attempting to secure light upon the subject and to choose wisely between argument and suggestion, the business man cannot safely follow the advice of his chance counselor nor may he follow precedents, for there is no uniformity among counselors nor among successful precedents.

If the business man is an advertiser and is considering methods of influencing the public, he can decide wisely only after a careful analysis of the problem confronting him, both because of the nature of his goods and because of the nature of the responses that may be secured from his possible customers. If his goods are new, an educational campaign must be waged in which logical arguments have a prominent place. If his goods have unusual talking points, these should be presented. If he depends upon advertising exclusively, he must then supply his customers with adequate data for purchasing the goods. If he is selling mainly to professional buyers, arguments are essential. If his possible customers may be induced to glance at his advertisement but may not be induced to read arguments, then arguments should in the main be eliminated and suggestions made effective. If his goods are thoroughly known to the customers, a mere suggestion may be more effective than any possible argument. If the advertisements are

depended upon not to sell the goods but merely to familiarize the public with the goods or to make them favorably disposed towards the goods, then suggestion is all the case demands. The general public responds more readily to suggestions than to arguments; hence in dealing with this large group it is usually wise to construct the copy according to this habitual method of response of the general public. Immediate action is more often secured by suggestion than by argument.

Whatever the end sought through persuasion, the problem is similar to that of selling goods by means of printed forms of advertising and the solution of the problem is equally complex and equally important in every line of business.

After the business man has analyzed methods of persuading men and after he has decided to employ either argument or suggestion, then a further problem awaits him—How shall he construct his arguments or his suggestions so they will secure the maximum results? The next two chapters will deal with these practical problems.

# CHAPTER IX

# MAKING ARGUMENTS EFFECTIVE

OUTLINE

The Requisites of Completed Deliberation

I. Creating an Adequate Idea of What is Offered

II. The HOW Supplements the WHY in an Argument

III. The Place of Feeling and Sentiment in an Argument

IV. Weighing the Evidence

V. Concluding the Argument

# CHAPTER IX

# MAKING ARGUMENTS EFFECTIVE

## The Requisites of Completed Deliberation

As shown in Chapter II, "An Analysis of Deliberation," we present arguments in order that we may make people deliberate. That their deliberation may be complete they must do five things:

1. They must have an adequate idea of the thing which we are attempting to persuade them to choose or to do.

2. They must have a clear idea of just what they must do to choose the thing proposed.

3. They must be led to attach value to our offer.

4. They must consciously weigh the evidence which we have presented in comparison with reasons for selecting other things or for not acting at all.

5. And finally they must be led to make a more or less logical deduction resulting in conviction and the performance of the act which we are advocating.

The strength of an argument cannot be judged by its phraseology but depends exclusively upon the success it has in causing persons to perform these five essential steps in a typical act of deliberation.

## I. Creating an Adequate Idea of What is Offered

An argument must give data concerning the thing proposed. The skill is not so much in giving much data

as in giving the most effective data. The real essential nature of most things does not consist in the material substances which compose them but in the relationships and functions which they sustain. Water is not adequately described by stating that it is composed of two parts of hydrogen to one of oxygen. The important thing about water is the uses which may be made of it. No one is able to give an exhaustive description of anything. The relationships which even a simple thing sustains are innumerable. A bar of soap may be completely described so far as its chemical constituents are concerned but no exploiter of soap has been able to tell us all that might be said about his soap. There is no end to the possible uses, the possible methods of securing it, the possible savings and delights which may be secured from it.

In presenting an argument in favor of any proposition it is not necessary to present much data but only such data as is essential to the purpose in hand. The question then naturally arises as to what data should be presented and what omitted. This question cannot be answered merely by a study of the thing offered for sale, or of the act desired, but rather by a study of the persons who are to be affected by the argument.

Professor Harlow Gale attempted to discover the most essential data for selling soap. Under the conditions of his experiment he found these six reasons for buying soap to be ranked as follows, the most important being given first:

1. Purity by government test
2. Old firm

3. Home industry
4. Attractiveness
5. Special sale
6. Souvenir prize

In "Advertising and Selling" for February, 1913, W. A. Shryer presents the following classifications which he regards as important in selling various classes of merchandise:

The dominant primary appeals: (1) pride, (2) acquisitiveness, (3) health, (4) utility. The secondary or subsidiary appeals: (1) cleanliness, (2) caution, (3) taste, (4) ease, (5) beauty, (6) sentiment, (7) pleasure.

Hollingworth arranges the data making the strongest appeals in general as follows: In the first group are the appeals to health, cleanliness, science, time saved, appetite, efficiency, safety, durability, quality, modernity, family affection. In the second group are reputation, guarantee, sympathy, medicinal use, imitation, elegance, courtesy, economy, affirmation, sport, hospitality. In the third and last group fall substitutes, clan feeling, nobbiness, recommendation, social superiority, imported, and beauty.

In my study and analysis of advertising successes I have found many successful arguments based on data (concepts, appeals, motives, reasons, etc.) other than those in the lists here reproduced. This fact does not in the least prove the futility of these lists, but it does emphasize the necessity of an analysis of the goods, the customers, and the methods of distribution in every advertising campaign.

If we assemble all the possible data for arguments,

scores or even hundreds of convincing points may be made in exploiting almost any commodity. Almost all goods offered for sale could make a majority of the appeals mentioned above, but the order of efficiency of the different motives would vary from one commodity to another.

Most salesmen get into the habit of presenting their goods in a particular way and so fail to realize the possible range of appeals that could be made for the goods. Let any man check up his practice with these lists and he doubtless would find some appeals which he is neglecting and which might be very effective.

## II. The HOW Supplements the WHY in an Argument

If by arguments I am trying to induce you to establish a factory in my town I first present reasons *why* your factory would be particularly profitable there. If I should be able to give enough arguments in favor of the proposition, you doubtless would figure out for yourself *how* you would go at it to establish the factory. You are not convinced, however, till, in imagination, you have established your business there. If, when in imagination you have projected yourself into the future, no insurmountable difficulties occur to you, you may be convinced and decide to act. Before you are convinced you are likely to figure out *how* my proposition could be carried out. I would greatly increase my chances of convincing you if, instead of confining myself to *why* you should build the factory, I should devote much of my presentation to describing vividly just what you would have to do to follow out the plan I am proposing. If by my words you are led to imagine yourself as estab-

lishing the factory, the mental image thus formed in your mind is more of a "clincher" than any reason for the action that could possibly be offered.

If I am selling, by means of advertising, one of the best known household commodities, my argument is incomplete unless I state where the goods may be secured. Even though the goods may be had at every grocery store, and even though every possible purchaser may know where to get them, yet the advertisement should contain a statement as to how the goods can be secured. The function of such a statement is to cause the possible purchaser to imagine himself as going to the store to secure the goods. He might possibly think out how to get the goods as soon as he had read the descriptions of my goods, but my statement of the necessary means for securing the goods makes easy this essential step.

As a matter of fact there is no household commodity so well known that every possible purchaser knows just where and how to secure it. The salesman is so well acquainted with his goods and knows so well how customers may secure them that he is inclined to forget that one of his special duties is to educate new customers as to where and how the goods may be had.

Even though an advertisement has made me want a thing, I am inclined to procrastinate unless all the steps necessary for securing the goods are clearly in my mind.

I decided to try a particular make of shoes and to secure them at a convenient time when in Chicago. As a matter of fact I did not know exactly where they were on sale. I could easily have found out but I didn't, so I have procrastinated the purchase which I would have

made if the place for securing the shoes had been definitely in mind.

Many advertisers neglect to emphasize the means for securing the goods which they exploit. The goods may have general distribution and may be on sale at all stores handling that general class of merchandise, but many possible customers are not aware of that fact. They may be convinced of the desirability of securing the goods, but they fail to purchase because of the uncertainty as to the place or means of securing the goods.

Furthermore, the emphasis upon the steps necessary to secure the goods acts not only as a source of information for possible new customers, but also as a most powerful stimulus to action for both new and old customers.

A large proportion of all advertisements of goods having a general distribution fails to make use of this psychological fact. In the current issue of one of the leading American magazines there are 65 full-page advertisements of goods having general distribution. Of these 65 advertisements, 22 state with some completeness the means of securing the goods. Such expressions as these are used in the advertisements:

"Your druggist and your grocer have X—."

"Price $3.00, $4.00, $5.00, to $15.00, at leading dealers everywhere."

"Write for catalogue B and name of nearest dealer."

"Sold by all first-class dealers."

"Sold by all grocers, 10 cents a package."

Of the 65 advertisements 7 give no hint as to methods of securing the goods—no price, no address, no statement that the goods might be had at local deal-




# "That coupon gave me my start"

"It's only a little while ago that I was just where you are now. My work was unpleasant: my pay was small. I had my mother to take care of, and it was tough sledding trying to make ends meet. I hadn't had much schooling. I didn't ***know enough*** to fill any better job than the one I had.

"One day I saw an advertisement of the ***American School.*** It told how other men got better positions and bigger salaries by taking their courses. I didn't see how a correspondence school could benefit me, but as long as it didn't ***cost*** anything to mark the coupon I thought it was worth investigating at least. I marked the coupon and sent it in on the next mail.

"That was two years ago, and ***now I'm drawing more money every week than I used to get in a month.***"

If you want a ***better job,*** if you want more ***congenial work,*** if you want a salary that ***will put you in the class where you belong —***

***SIGN AND MAIL THE COUPON NOW***

**Your Opportunity Coupon**

**Mark the position you want and mail the coupon now**

| | |
|---|---|
| .... Electrical Engineer | .... Lawyer |
| .... Elec. Light & Power Supt. | .... Bookkeeper |
| .... Electrical Wireman | .... Stenographer |
| .... Telephone Expert | .... Private Secretary |
| .... Architect | .... Accountant |
| .... Building Contractor | .... Cost Accountant |
| .... Architectural Draftsman | .... Cert'f'd Public Acc't |
| .... Structural Draftsman | .... Auditor |
| .... Structural Engineer | .... Business Manager |
| .... Concrete Engineer | .... Fire Ins. Inspector |
| .... Civil Engineer | .... Fire Ins. Adjuster |
| .... Surveyor | .... Fire Ins. Expert |
| .... Mechanical Engineer | .... Moving Picture Op'r |
| .... Mechanical Draftsman | .... Sanitary Engineer |
| .... Steam Engineer | .... Irrigation Engineer |
| .... Municipal Engineer | .... Textile Boss |
| .... Gas Engine Engineer | .... College Preparatory |
| .... Gas Tractor Engineer | .... Auto. Mechanician |

NAME .....

ADDRESS .....

T.W. 2-14

**American School**
of Correspondence, Chicago, U.S.A.

***This school has no connection with any other school using the name "American"***

FIGURE 2



# Fairy Magic—Telephone Reality

A tent large enough to shelter his vast army, yet so small that he could fold it in his hand, was the gift demanded by a certain sultan of India of his son, the prince who married the fairy Pari-Banou.

It was not difficult for the fairy to produce the tent. When it was stretched out, the sultan's army conveniently encamped under it and, as the army grew, the tent extended of its own accord.

A reality more wonderful than Prince Ahmed's magic tent is the Bell Telephone. It occupies but a few square inches of space on your desk or table, and yet extends over the entire country.

When you grasp it in your hand, it is as easily possible to talk a hundred or a thousand miles away as to the nearest town or city.

In the Bell System, 9,000,000 telephones are connected and work together to take care of the telephone needs of the people of this country.

As these needs grow, and as the number of telephone users increases, the system must inevitably expand. For the Bell System must always provide a service adequate to the demands of the people.

AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH COMPANY
AND ASSOCIATED COMPANIES

*One Policy* *One System* *Universal Service*

FIGURE 3

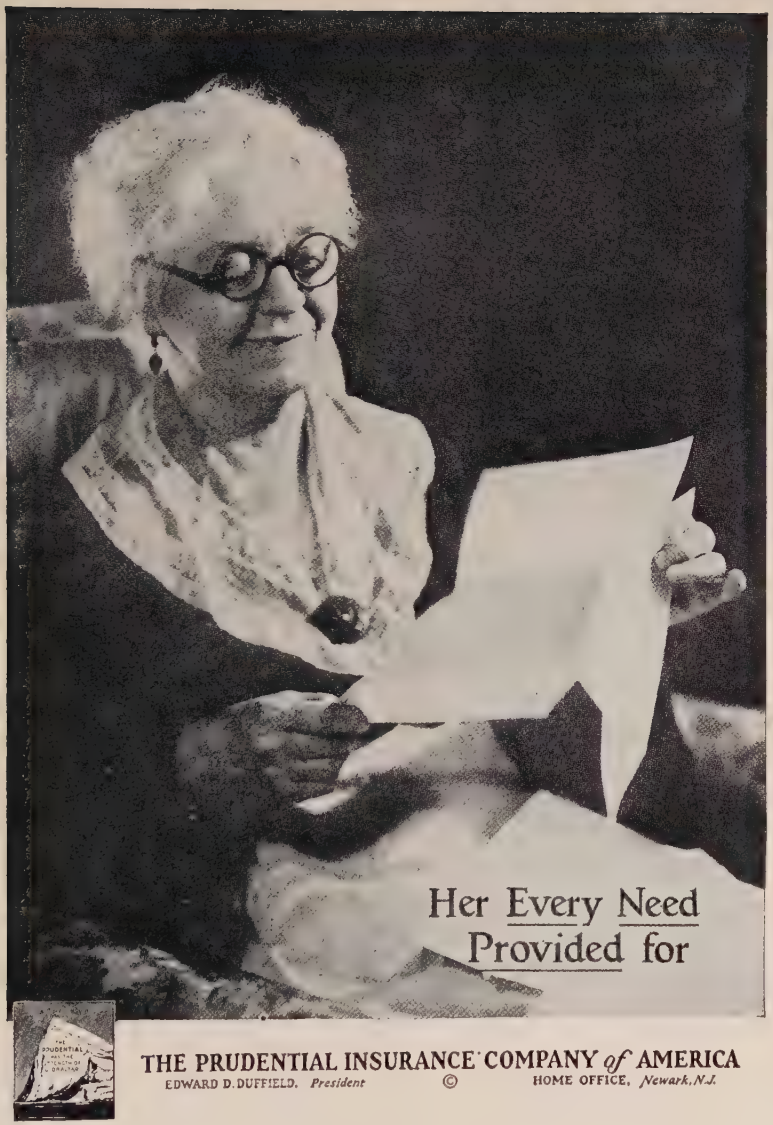

Her Every Need
Provided for
THE PRUDENTIAL INSURANCE COMPANY of AMERICA
EDWARD D. DUFFIELD, President
©
HOME OFFICE, Newark, N.J.

FIGURE 4



Ernest McGroucher and son John demonstrate that fire department speed can be introduced into any bedroom by the fragrance of Pillsbury's pancakes



Don't be troubled by grouchy men folk, half an hour late for breakfast. The cure is simple—merely add water or milk to Pillsbury's Pancake Flour, and bake!

★

# Pillsbury's Pancake Flour

*made of the same pure, high-quality ingredients you use in your own kitchen*

FIGURE 5


Suppose we haven't made a million,
Let's be grateful this Thanksgivin'
For all those daily blessin's
That make our lives wuth livin'—
Thankful that we've got kind fren's—
No debts we cannot pay,
A lot o' health, enough o' wealth
An' three good meals a day.
I'm thankful I can stretch my legs
Befo' a cheerful fire,
An' smoke cool, mellow VELVET
In my sweet, old, seasoned briar.
Velvet Joe
IN THIS season of thankfulness for the fruits of earth, let us not forget the "blessed weed" that grows in the Blue Grass Country—Kentucky's Burley de Luxe, that in the form of VELVET, The Smoothest Smoking Tobacco, brings cheer and comfort to millions of men.
Many a Thanksgiving feast will be topped off with a sweet, old, seasoned pipe, full of cool, slow-burning VELVET whose aged-in-the-wood mellowness brings content.
May your Thanksgiving pipe be sweet with it.
10c Tins
5c Metal-Lined Bags
One Pound Glass Humidors
Liggett & Myers Tobacco Co.
Velvet
TOBACCO

FIGURE 6

ers, no information or hint as to what action is desired of possible customers.

The remaining 59 advertisements have inadequate information as to methods of securing the goods. In fact I cannot learn from some of the advertisements whether the goods advertised are on sale, for instance, in Evanston or even in Chicago.

This failure to emphasize the means of securing the goods advertised is the most glaring weakness in advertising at the present time, and renders ineffectual many otherwise urgent arguments.

Sign-posts are not necessary in primitive villages. In great cities sign-posts are needed on every corner and these must be supplemented by courteous policemen. Modern methods of merchandising have transcended the few requirements of the village shopkeeper. There are so many possible roads which the customer may take that he is coming to depend more and more on the "sign-posts" for his directions. He is unwilling to think for himself where others will do it for him more satisfactorily.

The modern merchant cannot be too specific in his directions as to the exact steps necessary in answering an advertisement or purchasing goods. It is an important question: How may the advertiser best present to the public the method of securing the goods?

The most fundamental condition in any such advertising is that the method of securing the goods should be made clear to all possible customers who are not familiar with the goods. Even if the commodity has been on the market for decades and if it is to be had at all grocers or druggists, the place where it can be found should be

stated in every advertisement. The construction of the advertisement should be such that when a new possible customer reads the advertisement there arises in his mind a picture of the place where the goods can be had and of the method of securing them. The advertiser cannot assume that the possible customer will use any mental effort in creating this mental picture. He cannot be depended upon to do any constructive thinking, and unless the advertiser has made the method of securing the goods so plain that the mental picture must be seen by the new customer, he will not see it and will leave the advertisement with no thought of securing the goods advertised; or at least he will be inclined to procrastinate the actual purchase because of his mental inertia.

The wise salesman induces his customer to try on the clothing, to drive the automobile, to play the musical instrument, etc. The wise advertiser presents the goods, so far as possible, in such a way that the customer will not be compelled to use any original thought in conceiving of all the steps involved in the securing of the goods.

### III. The Place of Feeling and Sentiment in an Argument

Much advertising fails to get at the feelings and emotions, the instincts and sentiments. It must not only convince the public that they OUGHT to act, but it must present its proposition so that it will make them WANT to act.

We are late in reaching the pew but early at the bleachers. We put off writing to cousins and aunts, but the fiancée is answered by "return mail." The dic-

tates of reason may be resisted but not the promptings of sentiment and emotions.

We put off the things we know we OUGHT to do but not the things we WANT to do.

Almost every one who reads the advertisements of automobiles hankers after a machine, but unless his income is adequate his better judgment convinces him that it would be foolish extravagance to make the purchase. In this case we seem to have hesitation produced by the judgment even when the purchase is prompted by intense feelings. But the judgment is easily convinced of the wisdom of any act which excites intense desire. In the case of the automobile the judgment easily recognizes a fanciful need and yields to the promptings of desire.

A current advertisement takes advantage of this psychological situation and makes a most clever appeal to possible purchasers of automobiles. The following extract from the text of the advertisement is very adroit: "You may think you don't WANT a motor car. But there isn't any question about your NEEDING one. There is a difference between wanting a thing and needing it. . . . . There is nothing that you could invest the money in that will pay you such a big dividend in the saving of your time in business and the saving of your health for years, as the purchase of a motor car. A good thing is a better thing the sooner you get it."

If this advertisement is able to convince a man that he OUGHT to get the car he will do so at once because he already WANTS to purchase it. When desire is surging we are easily convinced that we ought to act, and hence the act follows immediately. When the judgment is

convinced but no desire is enkindled, procrastination keeps the intended act from taking place. Many articles of merchandise may be so presented that the public will DESIRE to purchase them. Or they may be so presented that the public will merely be convinced that the goods OUGHT to be secured. The practical problem then arises as to methods of making the public WANT to act and WANT to follow out specific directions.

Advertisers have been successful in accomplishing this purpose in various ways. Some of these successful methods are worthy of consideration.

Goods offered as means of gaining social prestige make their appeals to one of the most profound of the human instincts. In monarchies this instinct is regarded as a mere tendency to imitate royalty. In America, with no such excuse, the eagerness with which we attempt to secure merchandise used by the "swell and swagger" is absurd, but it makes it possible for the advertiser to secure more responses than might otherwise be possible. As an illustration of this fact we need but to look at the successful advertisements of clothing, automobiles, etc. The quality of the goods themselves does not seem to be so important as the apparent prestige given by the possession of the goods.

Goods which are presented as supplying a need long felt by the public are purchased without delay. In the case also of objects which supply any of the fundamental instinctive needs, the chances are that we shall act unhesitatingly. The instinctive desire to win social approval is but a typical illustration of an appeal to the fundamental instincts.

Our feelings may be awakened by the ideas them-

selves, by the manner in which the ideas are presented, or by a combination of the two. The idea of savory viands is pleasing in itself and the manner of presenting the idea may add much to its pleasing value when presented as is done, for example, by the National Biscuit Company in placing Nabisco before the public. In the advertisements of Nabisco an attempt was made for many months to please by means of fairy maids serving the product, by means of alluring verbal descriptions of the goods and by perfect harmony between the illustration and the type matter.

The man with the proper imagination is able to conceive of any commodity in such a way that it becomes an object of emotion to him and to those to whom he imparts his picture, and hence creates desire rather than a mere feeling of ought. It would be hard to conceive of any more prosaic things than correspondence schools, dental cream, billiard tables, tobacco, soap, flour, fountain pens, foods, musical instruments, automobiles, heating plants, radiators, financial securities, and insurance. In the mind of the artist these homely commodities are transformed into objects that awaken our sentiments and æsthetic feelings. The advertisement reproduced as Figure 2 presents to us a correspondence school in such a way that our sympathies are aroused at once. Figure 3 presents the telegraph and telephone in a new light to most of us, and in such a way that it assumes a sentimental value in our minds. Figure 4 presents an argument for insurance through the medium of a picture that has a strong emotional appeal. Figure 5 has a touch of humor—which must be used carefully—but it

makes us feel that Pillsbury's pancakes are really appetizing. Figure 6 spreads a halo of sentiment about a tobacco so that even the non-users regret their inability to enjoy the pleasures of Velvet Joe. All these five advertisements—and many others—present their merchandise in such a way that a sentimental value attaches to the goods advertised. They not only please us by the method of presenting the goods, but they also cause us to ascribe to the goods themselves something of sentimental value.

The advertiser should be a good business man and should know the goods to be exploited. He should be a practical psychologist and know the human emotions and sentiments. He should also be a man with a fertile imagination that he may be able to think of his merchandise in its most attractive forms. He must also present his arguments—whether picture or type matter—in the most artistic manner possible under the restrictions imposed upon him. Many of our successful national advertisers have come to recognize the fact that the artist is demanded for the most skillful exploitation of merchandise. The literary style employed in the advertising pages of our best magazines may be compared favorably with the editorial pages. The illustrations which are the most successful meet the requirements demanded by the combined judgment of the business man, the psychologist, and the artist. The most convincing arguments are those that most adequately describe the merchandise; most skilfully appeal to the fundamentals in human nature; and are clothed in the most artistic forms.

## IV. Weighing the Evidence

Arguments are not assumed to convince immediately but to lead to a mental see-sawing, a weighing of evidence and a passing of judgment. In presenting my arguments to you I am on my guard to present them in such a form that you will actually be able to weigh them and to pass judgment as to the value of the thing which I am trying to persuade you to accept or to do. I therefore present my arguments in a logical and simple manner. If I am trying to induce you to change to the "task and bonus" system of wage I must show you what you would get according to the new system if translated into the terms to which you are accustomed. In this way you will immediately pass the judgment of "more profitable" upon my proposition. I must conform to your habits of thought; I must describe things in a manner which causes you to classify them favorably, to imagine yourself as accepting and acting upon my arguments and hence enabled to weigh my evidence effectively.

In so far as possible we all reduce our actions to habit and respond in a stereotyped way to whole classes of things. There are certain classes of things which we habitually reject without hesitation; there are other classes which we accept in a perfectly automatic manner. Every business man has formed the fixed habit of rejecting every proposition which he classifies as unprofitable. He has an equally fixed habit of accepting anything which he classifies merely as profitable. The function of my argument is then to cause the public to classify my proposition with a group towards which they have formed the habit of acting favorably. Thus if I

can get business men to classify my offer as profitable they will accept it; if they classify it as unprofitable they will reject it.

In reality, arguments are necessary only in advocacy of propositions which are so complex that they cannot readily be classified with a single group of things towards which action is stereotyped. If I am trying to persuade you to purchase a home you may classify the purchase of the particular piece of real estate as securing a home, a good investment, or an act which will please your family, or an act which will bring you into association with very desirable persons. On the other hand you may classify the purchase of this real estate as the sort of deal which a friend made and on which he lost heavily, as a move which would limit your freedom of action, as removing you too far from your place of business, as being an outlay of money greater than is warranted at the present time, or as making it impossible for you to be in the market for a bargain. All I can do by argument is to present the real estate to you in such a manner that you will be likely to classify it with the things toward which you act favorably with the greatest alacrity, and to try to keep out of your mind everything which would lead you to classify it according to some of the unfavorable groups. As a real estate dealer I must find out what particular conceptions of real estate are most likely to be grouped in classes towards which the possible buyers are accustomed to respond most favorably. If my patrons are conservative and respond regularly only towards what seems to be particularly safe, then I must emphasize the substantial nature of my offerings. If they are looking for an

THE MAKER'S NAME PABST MILWAUKEE PROCLAIMS ITS QUALITY




# Pabst-ett the Most Delicious Spread for Bread

SOMETHING new—something different—something more delicious. That is Pabst-ett, the new and finer food made by a process that retains the nutritive qualities of whole milk—proteins, milk sugar, and body-building mineral elements formerly lost in cheese-making.

Pabst-ett has a rich, individual flavor. It spreads easily at ordinary temperature and slices appetizingly when cold. The unpleasant after-effects which many people have often thought resulted from cheese-eating are not caused by Pabst-ett.

Try Pabst-ett as a spread for bread or crackers, for sandwiches and salads. There is nothing finer or more digestible. Order from your grocer.

PABST CORPORATION, *Milwaukee, Wisconsin*
*Makers of Pabst Wonder Process Cheese*

*Distributed by*

**Set Distributor's Name in 14 pt. Bold**
**Address, Telephone No. etc. here, in 10 pt. Bold**

Pabst-ett

***For Delicious Rarebits***

Use Pabst-ett for rarebits. The smooth, creamy texture and rich, delicious flavor of Pabst-ett gives rarebits the most tempting appearance and satisfying taste.




Pabst-ett

FIGURE 7

investment, then I must show how the city is growing and how there will be ready sales. Great skill is required in presenting any commodity so that it will be most favorably classified.

Pabst-ett is a new kind of cheese, recently unknown to the public. Whether the public will purchase it or not depends upon how it is classified. Figures 7, 8, 9, and 10 are excellently designed to lead people to classify the new product favorably. In Figure 7 we find Pabst-ett classified as a "delicious spread for bread." Any product that can be used in that way is worth having on hand. Figure 8 shows Pabst-ett being used for Salads—and salads are often a source of trouble. A "salad enticingly different" is much to be desired. Another use is suggested in Figure 9, where Pabst-ett is shown as something to serve at the end of the evening; and thus it is put into another classification.

In Figure 10 extra emphasis is laid upon the chief category of classification—Pabst-ett for sandwiches. This is a *general* as distinct from a special appeal. Whenever or wherever sandwiches are used, Pabst-ett is available. Thus the reader of a series of Pabst-ett ads comes to class it in his mind with sandwiches generally, with salads, with card parties, afternoon teas, and the like. When it is thus favorably classified by the reader, it is likely to be thought of and purchased whenever any occasion for its use arises. It may be purchased and kept on hand ready for such occasions as have been suggested.

In presenting my arguments I must do it so that you may compare and weigh them with those presented for any competing line of goods. My duty is not to assist

THE MAKER'S NAME PABST MILWAUKEE PROCLAIMS ITS QUALITY




# *Salads That are Enticingly Different*

USE Pabst-ett for salads and enjoy the thrill of a new, delightful flavor. Pabst-ett is that new and finer food made by a process which retains the nutritive value of whole milk and conserves the milk sugar, proteins and body-building mineral elements formerly lost in cheese-making.

Pabst-ett has a rich flavor and a tang that wins favor at first taste. Spreads easily at ordinary temperature; slices appetizingly when cold. The unpleasant after-effects which so many people believe come from eating cheese are not caused by Pabst-ett.

For a spread for bread, crackers, or sandwiches, and for salads there is nothing more palatable or wholesome. Order Pabst-ett from your grocer today.

**Pabst-ett and Crackers**

is a delightful treat. Spread it generously on crackers or wafers, toasted to a golden brown.




PABST CORPORATION, *Milwaukee, Wisconsin*
*Makers of Pabst Wonder Process Cheese*

*Distributed by*

**Set Distributor's Name in 14pt. Bold**
**Address, Telephone No. etc. here, in 10 pt. Bold**

Pabst-ett

FIGURE 8

THE MAKER'S NAME PABST MILWAUKEE PROCLAIMS ITS QUALITY

# *A Perfect Ending to a Delightful Evening*



PABST-ETT sandwiches, served at the climax of an evening at cards, will give your guests a new idea of how rich and delicious sandwiches can be.

Pabst-ett is made by a new process that retains the nutritive value of whole milk and conserves the milk sugar, proteins and body-building mineral elements formerly lost in cheese-making. It can be eaten freely without thought of the unpleasant after-effects which many people believe come from cheese-eating.

Use Pabst-ett for salads, sandwiches, and as a spread for bread and crackers. It is wholesome, satisfying and delicious. Order today from your grocer.

PABST CORPORATION, *Milwaukee, Wisconsin*
*Makers of Pabst Wonder Process Cheese*

***Pabst-ett with Salads***

Pabst-ett for salads or as a condiment is especially delicious. Try it as the center filling for a pineapple salad, or as a base covered with nut meats.




*Distributed by*

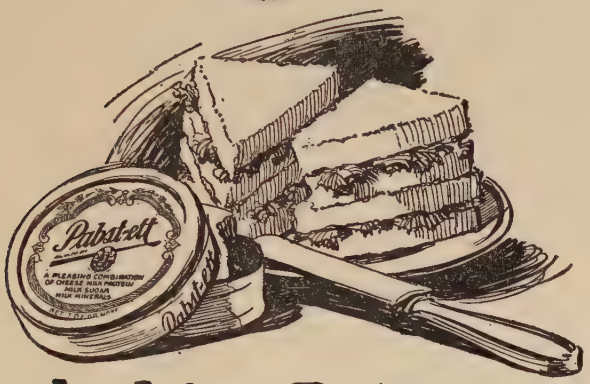
**Set Distributor's Name in 14 pt. Bold**

**Address, Telephone No. etc. here, in 10 pt. Bold**

Pabst-ett

FIGURE 9

THE MAKER'S NAME PABST MILWAUKEE PROCLAIMS ITS QUALITY




# A New, Delicious Spread for Sandwiches

PABST-ETT, the new and finer food, spread between thin slices of bread, makes melt-in-your-mouth sandwiches that are supremely delicious.

Pabst-ett is made by a new process that retains the nutritive value of whole milk, and conserves the milk sugar, proteins and body-building mineral elements formerly lost in cheese-making. The unpleasant after-effects which many people have often thought resulted from cheese-eating are not caused by Pabst-ett.

Pabst-ett spreads easily at ordinary temperature, and slices appetizingly when cold. For sandwiches, salads, and as a spread for bread or crackers, there is nothing more delicious or wholesome. Order it from your grocer.

***Pabst-ett for Salads***

gives added zest that is a real taste-treat. Especially delightful in combination with pineapple.




PABST CORPORATION, *Milwaukee, Wisconsin*
*Makers of Pabst Wonder Process Cheese*

*Distributed by*

**Set Distributor's Name in 14 pt. Bold**
**Address, Telephone No. etc. here, in 10 pt. Bold**

Pabst-ett

FIGURE 10

you to call up these competing and contrasted ideas but to hold your attention so far as possible to my offers. I should emphasize particularly those points in my commodity at which comparisons with other things are made most readily and favorably.

Whether my line of goods will be chosen when brought into competition with other goods, depends largely upon how it is classified in the minds of the public. If I am selling a steel filing case it will be selected if it is classified by the public as a convenience used by successful competing firms; but will be rejected if classified as a product of a new and successful method of electric welding. It will be chosen if classified as an economy in space and money; but rejected if classified as a piece of office furniture. If I am selling a revolver it will be selected if classified as a protection, but rejected if classified as a powerful weapon. By means of salesmen and advertising, a merchant may in a large degree determine how the public shall classify his commodity. Almost any article of merchandise may be, and actually is, classified in a score of different ways. Ordinarily the merchant follows precedent or habit in deciding how his goods shall be classified in advertising and in selling talks. Whether he hits upon a good or a bad classification is largely a matter of luck, for no business man today knows how his goods should be classified to secure the greatest possible results. By bitter experience he may have found that one particular classification succeeds and that another fails, but he does not know the relative merits of different classifications. At this point the psychologist should render inestimable service to the business world. In any particular case he

should be able to determine the relative merits of different classifications. He should be able in advance to determine the success of any particular appeal in comparison with any other method of presenting the same goods. He should thus be in a position to save the business world from some of its unsuccessful advertising campaigns and hence to reduce the cost of distribution.

### V. Concluding the Argument

The argument is not completed till it ends in conviction and execution. The classification leading to comparison would seem to necessitate the conviction and execution, but unfortunately the concluding step cannot be thus assumed. For example, I may have led my employees to classify piece rate as a wage; and by comparison with other wages they may think of it as a larger wage. But before the argument has completed its function it must lead each man to go through a process of thinking something like the following syllogistic form of reasoning:

(Major premise) I will seek any opportunity to secure a larger wage.

(Minor premise) The piece rate offers an opportunity to secure a larger wage.

(Conclusion) Therefore I accept the piece-rate system.

Perhaps my presentation of the case in establishing both the major premise and the minor premise may have fulfilled the steps previously specified under sections I, II, III, and IV of this chapter. The employees may thus have a clear idea of wage and of piece rate. The

piece rate with its possibility of a larger wage may have been made to seem valuable. The piece rate may have been classified as a wage, and by comparison may seem to be a larger wage. The final step demands that these ideas should be brought into the form of an actual syllogism, or into some other effective form, so that the employees shall be forced to the conviction that the piece rate is desirable for them and hence they would be inclined to take the necessary steps to accept it.

In using argumentation to secure a high grade of employees, my task is not complete till I have made each candidate go through a mental process somewhat like the following:

(Major premise) A man should choose that employment which offers the greatest ultimate reward.

(Minor premise) Your employment offers the greatest ultimate reward.

(Conclusion) Therefore I accept employment with you.

Most of my argument may have been devoted to establishing the ideas summarized in the major and minor premises, but the success of the argument is measured by the degree to which I have secured conviction and execution as expressed in the conclusion of the syllogism.

In selling automobile tires by argumentation, my aim may be to cause the possible purchaser to go through a series of mental processes that may be summarized in a syllogism as follows:

(Major premise) I shall purchase the tire that gives me the lowest cost per mile.

(Minor premise) Your tire gives the lowest cost per mile.

(Conclusion) Therefore I shall order your make of tire.

My selling talk (copy, demonstration) may be devoted mainly to establishing the major or the minor premise. In establishing these premises my dependence may be on the mental processes discussed under the headings: "Creating an Adequate Idea of What is Offered"; "The How Supplements the WHY in an Argument"; "The Place of Feeling and Sentiment in an Argument"; and "Weighing the Evidence." But the result of the entire argument is to secure the mental states expressed by the customer in the "therefore" of the conclusion.

In all these illustrations, and in all examples of attempts to influence men by means of argumentation, it is not important whether the argument be cast in the form of a perfect syllogism, an implied syllogism, or in some form quite different from the syllogism. But it is important that the reader or hearer should be led to reach the mental state symbolized by the "therefore" in the conclusion of a perfect syllogism.

# CHAPTER X

# MAKING SUGGESTIONS EFFECTIVE

OUTLINE

Mankind is Influenced More by Suggestion than by Syllogistic Arguments

I. The Working of Suggestion is Dependent upon the Dynamic, Impulsive Nature of Ideas

II. Suggestions are Given by External Objects and Result in Acts Similar to Imitative Acts

III. Suggestion Excludes Comparison and Criticism

IV. Suggestion Secures Direct Response Without Delay

# CHAPTER X

## MAKING SUGGESTIONS EFFECTIVE

### Mankind is Influenced More by Suggestion than by Syllogistic Arguments

We have numerous books on the study of arguments but there is not a book and scarcely a chapter of a book (so far as the writer knows) which deals with the methods and devices of utilizing suggestions in business. It is interesting to the man in business to know that suggestion is, in his hands, a more powerful means of influencing men than is argument, but what he wants to know is precisely *how* he may give suggestions. The methods of giving suggestions and the sorts of suggestions which will be effective are discovered from a study of the principles found in an analysis of suggestion itself.

### I. The Working of Suggestion is Dependent Upon the Dynamic, Impulsive Nature of Ideas

From this principle we learn that in giving suggestions the thing of importance is to give the *idea* and then to trust to it to accomplish results. If I wish you to purchase a particular make of automobile I must get the idea of that automobile into your mind. If I want you to engage a certain class of employees I must get into your mind the idea of these persons considered as possible employees. It is not necessary to convince you of

the wisdom of the ideas but merely to get the ideas into your head, and then to trust to their dynamic natures to carry themselves out. If I want the American people to go to an exposition I must keep the idea of that exposition before them. It is not so important what I say about the exposition as that I put the matter before them so they will have the idea of the exposition vividly in mind.

This dependence on the dynamic force of ideas has made successful much advertising and other selling campaigns where there is no evident attempt to *convince* the public. The advertisement of White Rock reproduced as Figure 11, is a quarter-page advertisement that may possibly be very successful. There is no adequate ground given to convince us that White Rock is "The world's best table water." Yet the idea is conveyed to us by these words and many of us are profoundly impressed by it. This may be a very good advertisement, but if it were not for the dynamic force of the idea conveyed the advertisement would be practically worthless.

When we speak of the dynamic, impulsive nature of ideas, we are using the word idea in the broadest possible sense and inclusive of all such mental processes as sensations, perceptions, images, and memory. Some of these mental processes are much more dynamic than others. That is to say, some of them lead to action more surely than others.

Perceptions are more dynamic than memory or any form of mental image. The visual perception of a peach (actually seeing it) will cause me to spend my money more readily than any memory or mental image of the peach. The mere memory of a peach may cause my

mouth to water but the sight of the ripe fruit affects me to an even greater degree. In the history of the race, individuals have been accustomed to act mainly upon perception and less often upon memory or imagination.

Although we react readily to things that reach us directly through our senses, we react less readily to those things which reach us indirectly by means of such symbols as printed and spoken words. Pictures, especially if colored, are like the actual visual perceptions of the object. Hence pictures are more dynamic than verbal descriptions. A diagram or a chart also partakes of the nature of direct perception and frequently secures




FIGURE 11

action in a most astonishing way. Thus in Figures 11, 12, 13, and 14, the reproduced advertisements convince and move the public in a way impossible for mere verbal descriptions.

A spoken or printed word is a less effective method of presenting a thing or a cause than is a picture or any real object which has become associated with the thing or the cause. The sight of the ruins in the Forum at Rome inspires one with awe for ancient civilization in a way impossible for words to accomplish. The effect of monuments and memorials is most profound, and is due to the fact that visual perceptions are more dynamic than symbolic ideas. The effect of souvenirs and nov-

elty advertising is due to the same cause. The sight and the touch of a real object associated with a particular line of merchandise, influences us toward that merchandise in a striking way.

Positive ideas are more dynamic than negative ones, even when logically they seem identical. "The chances are only one to four that you will lose," is logically identical with the statement, "The chances are four to one that you will win." The latter would secure response more readily than the former. The statement, "It will keep perfectly for thirty days," is more dynamic than the statement, "It will not begin to decay for thirty days." The human mind responds more readily to the positive idea than to the negative, even in instances where differences in response might not be anticipated. "Walk down the middle of the plank," is carried out more readily than "Don't step near the edges of the plank." "Look straight ahead," is a command less difficult than "Don't look to the right or the left." "Secure the genuine," is more effective than "Avoid substitution."

We are also accustomed to respond to single things rather than to groups of things; to concrete situations rather than to abstractions; to objects within the focus of attention rather than to those or the fringe of consciousness.

### II. Suggestions are Given by External Objects and Result in Acts Similar to Imitative Acts

The effectiveness of a suggestion depends much upon the source from which it comes. The most powerful source is a person who assumes, and is believed to



# "I'd Like to Know *that* Man!"

**Of course they would. Everyone would like to know a man so brilliant, so entertaining. They see how interesting and well-informed he is. But they don't know the story behind the man**

"I WONDER who he is? Let's ask?" They turned to his friend, Rollins.

"His name is Davis," he said.

"Isn't he interesting! How well he talks. I could listen to a man like that all evening!"

"Oh, come!" Rollins laughed, "You two would probably find him a bore after the first hour."

"A bore? Just listen to him! He seems to know about everything."

"He must be highly educated. Isn't he, Mr. Rollins?"

As a matter of fact, *Davis never even finished elementary school!* His friend, Rollins, listening to him, was astonished. How had Davis suddenly become so well-informed? How had he developed this brilliant personality?

He spoke to him about it later. "I say, Davis, how did you get this way? You must certainly read a lot."

Davis laughed. "You know how busy I am, Rolly. I don't get much time to read."

"But in this one evening you quoted from Dante, Browning, Kipling, Poe! How do you do it?"

"Well, I read the newspapers and magazines to keep up-to-date on current events. Once in a great while I browse through my favorite classics. But for most of my reading I depend upon one volume alone—the Elbert Hubbard Scrap Book."

### Elbert Hubbard's Scrap Book? What's That?

"Hubbard began to keep a scrap book when he was quite young. He put into it all the bits of writing that inspired and helped him most. He kept this scrap book all through life, adding whatever he thought great and inspiring. As it grew, it became Hubbard's greatest source of ideas. He turned to it constantly; it helped him win fame as a writer and orator."

"But what can this private scrap book mean to you? How can you—*use* it—as you say?"

"It was published after Hubbard's death. Now anyone can buy it for the price of an ordinary best seller. I have a copy."

"So that's your secret! That's why you can talk so well on so many different subjects! That Elbert Hubbard Scrap Book has made you a popular man, Davis. The women just hung on your words tonight. You've become mighty interesting."

* * * *

### Examine It Free

The Elbert Hubbard Scrap Book contains ideas, thoughts, passages, excerpts, poems, epigrams—selected from the master thinkers of all ages. It represents the best of a lifetime of discriminating reading—choice selections from 500 great writers.

This Scrap Book is a fine example of Roycroft bookmaking. The type is set Venetian style—a page within a page—printed in two colors on fine tinted book paper. Bound scrapbook style.

Send the coupon today for five days' free examination of the Elbert Hubbard Scrap Book. When it arrives glance through it. If you aren't inspired, enchanted—return it within the five-day period and the examination will have cost you nothing. Otherwise send only $2.90 plus few cents postage in *full payment.* Clip and mail this coupon NOW. Wm. H. Wise & Co., Roycroft Distributors, Dept. 1210, 50 West 47th Street, New York City.

**WM. H. WISE & CO.**
**Roycroft Distributors**
**Dept. 1210, 50 West 47th Street,**
**New York City**

You may send me for five days' free examination a copy of Elbert Hubbard's Scrap Book in cloth-lined butcher paper binding. Within the five-day period I will either return the Scrap Book without obligation, or keep it for my own and send only $2.90, plus few cents postage, in full payment.

Name.....

Address.....

.....

☐ A few copies are available in de luxe binding of semi-flexible basket-weave buckram for only $1 additional. Please check in the square at the left if you want this de luxe binding, with the same return privilege.

FIGURE 12


Overseas Trade
EXPORT SALES
BY GENERAL MOTORS
1911
£121,898
1925
£78,000,000
1911
1925
T.M.CLELAND
GENERAL MOTORS
BUICK • CADILLAC • CHEVROLET • OAKLAND • OLDSMOBILE • GMC TRUCKS

FIGURE 13

possess, a friendly and sympathetic attitude. Abraham Lincoln was one of the most successful of American diplomats. He knew how to deal with men and fortunately he has given advice on this particular point:

"When the conduct of men is designed to be influenced, *persuasion,* kind, unassuming persuasion, should ever be adopted. It is an old and true maxim that 'a drop of honey catches more flies than a gallon of gall.' So with men. If you would win a man to your cause, first convince him that you are his sincere friend. Therein is a drop of honey that catches his heart, which, say what he will, when once gained, you will find but little trouble in convincing his judgment of the justice of your cause, if indeed that cause really be a just one. On the contrary, assume to dictate to his judgment, or to command his action, or to mark him as one to be shunned and despised, and he will retreat within himself, close all the avenues to his head and his heart; and though your cause be naked truth itself, and though you throw it with more than Herculean force and precision, you will be no more able to pierce him than to penetrate the hard shell of a tortoise with a rye straw. Such is man, and so must he be understood by those who would lead him, even to his own best interests."

The sympathetic foreman and salesman in their dealings with men, accomplish results that are impossible for their less sympathetic competitors. Certain organizations have come to realize that in training salesmen the most important result is to beget a feeling of real interest in and sympathy for the customers with whom they are to deal. They must be taught to assume the attitude of sympathetic helpfulness.

Prestige transforms all acts and words into veritable suggestions. The words of a great authority are accepted as facts, and that too without criticism. His acts are imitated not only in the field of his specialty but also in the non-essential details of his daily life. The man of prestige thus determines the thoughts and acts of his fellows. He is their veritable Bible and rule book. This working of prestige is observable in all human organizations. The nobility of a land sets the fashions for the common people. The city dweller determines the philosophy, the religion, and the ethics for the country dweller. The wealthy are imitated by the poor. The successful are imitated by the unsuccessful. The athlete is imitated by the fan, not only in the method of playing the game but also in the selection of clothes, tobacco, razors, etc., etc.

The women of Paris at one time were supposed to surpass all other women of the world in womanly graces and accomplishments. Paris was the center for refined literature, for painting, and for all the other humanities that might be thought of as womanly in any particular. Because of this fact the women of Paris acquired great prestige in the eyes of all the world. Consequently the women of all lands wanted to act like the Parisian woman. They desired to imitate her in clothing, and hence costumes purporting to come from Paris could be readily sold and at a handsome price.

The men of London at one time were supposed to possess the most manly virtues. Their virility was demonstrated by the fact that in direct competition they had become possessors of the colonial, the naval, and the financial powers of the world. They lived like gentle-




FIGURE 14. SUGGESTION—INSTRUCTIVE APPEAL

men and ruled like kings. They accordingly became possessed of a prestige that extended to all the nations of the earth. Because of this prestige the Englishmen set the fashions for the men of the world, and have been able to sell English clothing at great profit.

The indirect method of giving suggestions is not at all confined to verbal expressions, but may include such devices as that presented in Figure 12. Here we are told that people would like to know "that man" (yourself, indirectly), and we are shown by actual pictures (indirect evidence) that attractive ladies do notice "that man." A curious use of this device appears in Figure 13. The bare figures as to export would not prove interesting, but when we see the increased exports actually being shipped to Europe, we cannot fail to be impressed. The statement that the Red Cross is the greatest mother is given great force in Figure 14, where we literally see that the statement is true. The Scot Tissue advertisement, Figure 15, proves by ocular demonstration the high absorbent power of the paper. Does one not see the water being absorbed?

The words of a great authority are suggestions for those to whom he is an authority. His words are accepted as facts; they are not subjected to criticism but are accepted unhesitatingly. This power of suggestion in the words of men with authority, with power, and with technical ability is made much use of in dealing with men. The expert workman becomes the boss of a gang and his words are carried out without question. The man whose personality carries the most weight is assigned the most important duties.

Our subjection to authority is so great that it can


ScotTissue
Towels
"USE LIKE A BLOTTER."
AN EXTRA HEAVY WHITE ABSORBEN
Absorbency—
The Quality and Price Test of a Paper Towel
No purchasing agent of a railroad, corporation, factory, department store or hotel can afford to overlook the absorbent test in buying paper towels. This absorbent test decides whether you are saving or wasting money —maybe hundreds of dollars—on a year's supply
Since the primary purpose of a paper towel is to absorb water, the quickness with which your paper towels can absorb and the quantity they can absorb in a given time will determine their quality. This photographic illustration shows an absorbent ScotTissue Towel rolled up in pencil fashion and placed in a glass of water—make the test for yourself and see whether or not
ScotTissue Towels
"Use Like a Blotter"
Are Cheapest by This Test
Buy your paper towels on this absorption test and you will be satisfied. Find out whether you are paying paper towel prices for paper only or whether you are buying absorbent paper. There is a mighty big difference. ScotTissue-s go further and cost you less because they absorb quicker and absorb more water
To Large Consumers
Our Service Department is prepared to study conditions in your establishment and devise means for effecting substantial economies in your paper towel and toilet paper supplies You will be surprised to find in how many different ways they can do this and the amount they can save you. This entirely apart from the great saving which the installation of ScotTissue Towels and other ScotTissue products will show you.
We will send, all charges prepaid, 750 ScotTissue absorbent Towels for 600 west of Mississippi River and in Canada for $2 00. An economical fixture $1 extra
SCOTT PAPER COMPANY Philadelphia, Pa.
Makers of ScotTissue Towels and Toilet Paper

FIGURE 15



*He detects the slightest trouble*

If you go to your dentist at least every six months for a thorough inspection of your mouth he can prevent serious teeth decay and detect the first trace of dangerous gum infections. It is better to see him in time than to suffer needless pain and take chances with your health.

# *Pyorrhea robs* 4 out of 5

According to dental statistics, carelessness lets dread pyorrhea steal into the mouths of four out of five men and women after forty and pirate precious teeth and health. You can tell pyorrhea's approach by tender, bleeding gums. Go to your dentist at once for treatment and be sure to use Forhan's for the Gums night and morning.

If used regularly, Forhan's prevents or checks pyorrhea. It contains Forhan's Pyorrhea Liquid which dentists use in combating pyorrhea's ravages. It firms the gums and keeps them pink and healthy.

The entire family should begin to use Forhan's today. Besides safeguarding the health it cleanses the teeth perfectly.

No matter what tooth paste you now prefer, you owe it to your health to make Forhan's a regular daily habit. At all druggists 35c and 60c in tubes.

*Formula of R. J. Forhan, D. D. S.*
Forhan Company, New York

**Forhan's**
**FOR THE GUMS**




MORE THAN A TOOTH PASTE . . . *IT CHECKS PYORRHEA*

*Mention of Harper's Magazine is the best introduction to our advertisers*

FIGURE 16

be taken advantage of in most absurd ways. In persuading men we try to make our words appear as though they proceeded from an authority even when a moment's reflection would show the unreality of the claim. Thus in the reproduced advertisement of Forhan's tooth paste (Figure 16) the dentist, an authority, seems to be sponsor for all the statements that appear below his picture. The advertisement literally tells us only that the dentist "detects the slightest trouble," but his presence makes us feel that the entire advertisement contains dental advice. The statement is to me a suggestion in so far as I accept it without criticism or proof. This device of showing what appears to be the photograph of an expert in connection with statements is a common one in advertising and one that is most effective since it increases our suggestibility very greatly. In this way the prosperous-looking business man is represented as approving of some proposition appertaining to business. The physician seems to be affirming the statement that refers to the medicinal qualities of goods. The expert accountant is depicted as recommending the adding machine. The stenographer is represented as describing to us the virtues of a new machine. The beautifully dressed lady speaks from the finely executed half-tone to assure us of the peculiar loveliness of the advertised costumes.

Imitation is one of the most common forms of suggestion. We imitate the acts of others without considering the advisability of so doing. This fact is most significant in understanding methods of influencing men. We imitate others more readily than we follow their words. "Come on!" is more effective than "Go

LEAVE IT TO THE YOUNGER CROWD TO KNOW THE BEST!



IT is characteristic of this younger set to settle the cigarette question exactly as they settle their hard-fought games—on the sporting principle of "may the best win!"

FATIMA




*A few cents more—for the best that money can buy!*

LIGGETT & MYERS TOBACCO CO.

FIGURE 17

on!" If I see others looking into a shop window I too am inclined to stop and look. If others are interested in one class of sport, that is the particular form that entices me. All fashions and customs are but testimonials of the power of imitation as a form of suggestion.

In persuading men it is frequently possible to avail oneself of the suggestive force of imitation even when direct imitation is impossible. Thus pictures of others performing any particular act induce us to imitate the pictured actions. The advertisement reproduced as Figure 17 creates in the mind of the reader a tendency to do as these young people are doing—and to smoke the cigarettes they smoke.

We imitate most readily those whom we look up to as authorities or those who are our peers and belong to our social class. This fact is taken advantage of by presenting pictures of individuals having the appearance of authority in the field of the advertised commodity. At the same time, the individuals of authority are represented as belonging to the social class of the possible customers. The reproduced advertisement of Ammo in Figure 18 is cleverly constructed to utilize this tendency. The women who know about cleansers are intelligent housewives and capable housemaids. The lady in the picture who points with enthusiasm to Ammo is such an authority (one or the other), and her word has weight with us. She influences our opinion of the advertised product.

In this country at present the high-grade business man or banker has a great deal of prestige. Hence when the National City Company shows us in Figure 19 a capable-looking executive in the act of giving ad-

vice, we immediately understand that good advice is to be had for the asking. We feel, too, that a man so superior (see how he looms above the earth and the sky-scrapers) puts us under obligation to him by his generous offer.

### III. Suggestion Excludes Comparison and Criticism

If I am trying to persuade you by means of suggestion, then I must see to it that no thought of other possible lines of action should enter your mind. I must not mention competitors nor present my commodity in such a way that you would be likely to think of other possible lines of action. Also in presenting to you my line of goods I must not compel you to make a choice between different classes of goods which I offer.

According to this principle in persuading men the agent avoids all reference to competitors and the salesman attempts to hold your attention down to one class of goods at a time. Salesrooms are sometimes so constructed that customers can see none of the goods except as they are presented by the salesman. The salesman makes the most of this unique opportunity and presents to the customer a single line of goods and gets a decision on that. This specimen of the goods is then removed from sight and another presented, but, so far as practicable, the customer is not allowed to have two possible choices before him at once. This method has proved very successful.

We are more inclined to question a statement expressed in direct language than we are the same statement if expressed indirectly or in figurative language. That is to say, figurative and indirect language increases




"It's a wonderful help in the bathroom."

IT cleans immediately all grease and soiled spots from tiles, tubs, basins, glass and metal. Kills the germs that spread disease.

It is just a scientific blend of two old, well known, household helps—washing soda and ammonia. It will do anything either of these will do and do it better. Goes three times as far as ordinary ammonia.

# AMMO

## The Ammonia Cleanser

**For Kitchen, Bathroom and Laundry**

FIGURE 18



# "For good advice—quickly"

AN INVESTOR finds himself with idle funds. He calls the nearest National City Company office and at once gets the benefit of world-wide information and a list of sound bonds suitable to his needs. He also gets the advice of experienced bond men competent to discuss with him any investment problem. This investment experience and service is only as far away as your telephone.

## The National City Company

*National City Bank Building, New York*

OFFICES IN 50 AMERICAN CITIES · INTERCONNECTED BY 11,000 MILES OF PRIVATE WIRES · INTERNATIONAL BRANCHES AND CONNECTIONS

FIGURE 19

suggestibility. This fact is taken advantage of in many of the most successful attempts to influence men of which we have record. Mark Antony's oration at Cæsar's funeral, as presented by Shakespeare, is one of the most masterly uses of indirect and figurative language in stirring men to action. This form of expression takes us off our guard and keeps us from criticizing what is said. In fact, the speaker does not seem to assert anything which could be criticized, but he leads us to think things which would be criticized and would lead to antagonism if asserted directly. This figurative and indirect form of language is thus able to instil in us the desired ideas without giving us any occasion to question what has been said.

In some instances the name of a commodity suggests indirectly a superior quality. As examples of this should be cited Cream of Wheat, Ivory, White Rock, Sunkist, etc. These names suggest a quality in such a clever way that it can scarcely be questioned.

A spirit of frankness, openness, and confidence allays suspicion and increases suggestibility. The man who has confidence in himself and his wares has an easy battle with the competitor who lacks self-confidence and who is not sure of the value of his proposition. No man can hope for respect from others unless he has it for himself; he cannot readily win others to his cause unless he has first convinced himself. No man can do himself justice in a calling which makes him feel apologetic, and neither can he successfully advocate a cause for which he feels called upon to apologize. The remarkable effectiveness of such phrases as "The kind you'll eventually

buy," is to be found in this spirit of unbounded confidence which the promoter displays in his commodity.

A critical audience cannot be moved by suggestion. Its confidence must first be secured. The task of the advertiser is made difficult because of the suspicion with which his copy is received. The public are not inherently suspicious but have been made so because of their experience with advertisers. The first great American advertiser was P. T. Barnum. He worked on the theory that the American public liked to be humbugged. He gave them what he thought they wanted. The second great epoch in American advertising was the exploitation of the worthless and even harmful patent medicines. A third campaign that should be recognized is the publicity of the fakers who still continue to rob the American public of millions of dollars annually. P. T. Barnum, the patent medicines, and the fakers have created general suspicion toward all advertisements. The advertisers' great task is to counteract this baneful influence. They are succeeding in this task most creditably. In our best publications all advertising firms as well as all copy received are scrutinized with great care. Almost a score of states and several large cities have recently passed laws against fraudulent advertisements. Satisfaction guaranteed, goods sent on approval, money back at your request, and other related policies are rapidly coming into vogue. If by the united efforts of the advertisers of America suspicion could be removed from the purchasing public, suggestion would become the great method of exploiting merchandise, and the present high cost of distribution would be materially reduced.

### IV. Suggestion Secures Direct Response Without Delay

In order that the response may be carried out by suggestion, everything must be done to make such response as easy as possible. We must plan that the desired step shall not be of such a nature that it would be likely to cause hesitation. Thus in an advertisement in which suggestion is depended upon, the reader should be called upon to do something which is simple and easy. Many firms find it wise to supply the coupon in connection with the advertisement, so that the reader may fill it out and mail it at once. Other firms offer samples, catalogues, or demonstrations upon request; goods are sent C. O. D., or charged, or to be paid for upon approval, or upon the promise of money back if not satisfactory. These devices are wonderfully successful in begetting action immediately following the suggestion.

Great ingenuity is exercised very often by advertisers in suggesting immediate action or in controlling the conditions to make the suggested action easy of execution. Thus in Figure 20 we find the direct suggestion to fill out the coupon right away, and the arrow-head leads the reader down to the suggestion. The coupon is convenient in shape and size, and invites one to fill in the items desired. The advertisement might be improved by carrying the arrow-head farther down—and arranging the reading matter so that it reads down instead of from side to side.

The proprietor of a large railroad lunch counter inaugurated the policy of serving two sandwiches when but one was ordered. The customer was in no way

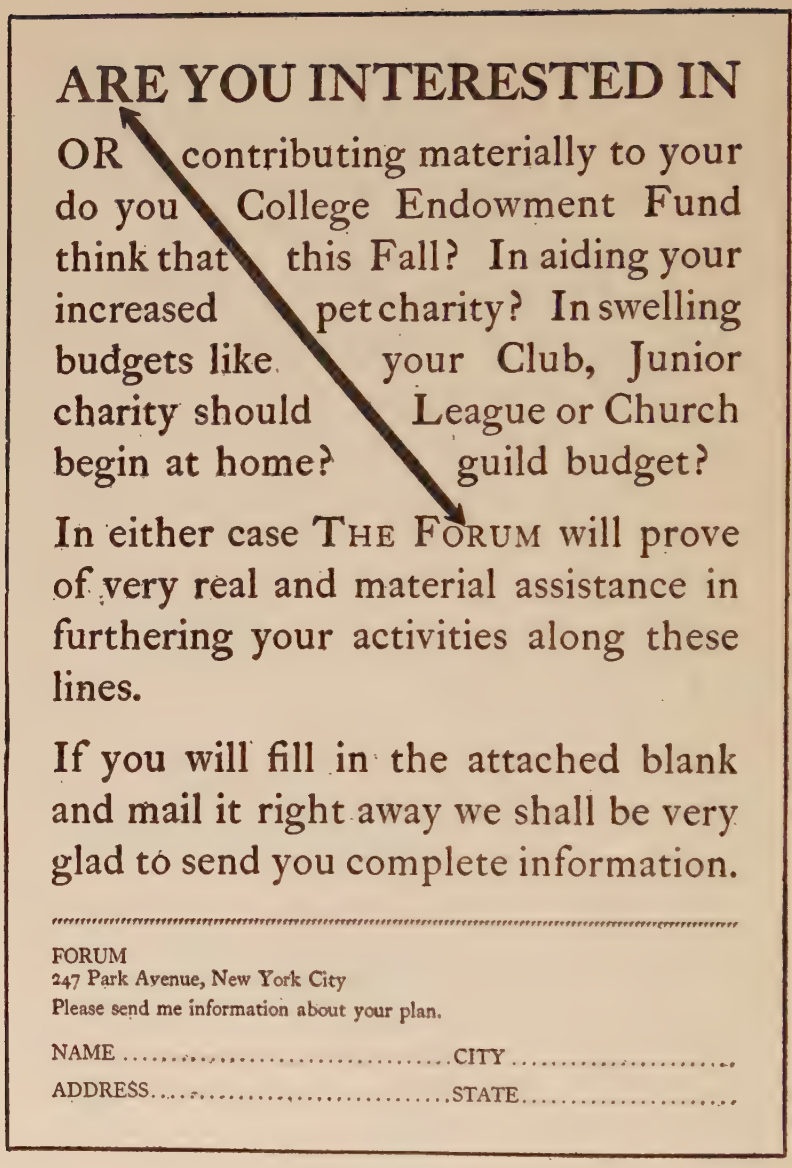

ARE YOU INTERESTED IN
OR contributing materially to your
do you College Endowment Fund
think that this Fall? In aiding your
increased pet charity? In swelling
budgets like your Club, Junior
charity should League or Church
begin at home? guild budget?
In either case THE FORUM will prove of very real and material assistance in furthering your activities along these lines.
If you will fill in the attached blank and mail it right away we shall be very glad to send you complete information.
FORUM
247 Park Avenue, New York City
Please send me information about your plan.
NAME ..... CITY .....
ADDRESS ..... STATE .....

FIGURE 20

obliged to eat and pay for the second sandwich, but when it was before him the suggestion to accept it was so strong and it was so easy to do so that the sale of sandwiches was greatly increased.

After the salesman has properly presented his offerings, he is in a position to say, "Now that you fully appreciate my goods how large an order shall I write out for you?" The advertisement closes with an appeal to send for circular, to write for demonstration, or to call at once to inspect the goods. These means to help you to decide and to execute your decision are quite essential since procrastination is so likely to keep you from doing the thing which you were just on the point of doing.

In purchasing advertised goods (mail-order advertising particularly) there is usually no reason why you should place your order now rather than some hours or days later. Every student of industrial history knows that in the past it has usually been true that the person who placed his orders earliest secured the best goods. But in advertised goods all orders must be filled with goods of uniform quality.

In personal forms of selling the presence of the seller fixes the moment at which the buyer could most conveniently make his purchases. But when the seller is the printed page appearing regularly, there is no particularly appropriate time for action. This is one of the fundamental inherent weaknesses of most forms of advertising and is an obvious cause in increasing and making habitual this natural tendency to procrastinate. If we procrastinate purchasing advertised goods till a more convenient season, the convenient season may never come.

A short time ago I went, toward evening, from Evanston to Chicago. On the way my eye caught sight of a street-car card containing the following sentence: "Why not take supper at Henrici's to-night?" The definiteness of the question got the better of me. I went to Henrici's for supper that evening, although I had not intended to till I read the street-car card. If the sentence had read, "Try a supper at Henrici's"—it would not have been effective with me for that night—I would have procrastinated.

During the months of October, November and December, certain magazines make especial efforts to secure new subscribers. One year's subscription received in October is good for 15 months; received in November, good for 14 months; and received in December, good for 13 months. Such appeals are sufficient to overcome the tendency to procrastinate in many instances.

Offers which are advertised as good till a particular date, are sometimes accepted by more persons than would have accepted if the offer had had no time limit.

All these schemes to secure action by limiting the time within which an action may take place have been successful in particular instances, but they are not subject to general application in any way.

The salesman who depends upon the power of suggestion presents the order blank at the psychological moment, and, without taking time to consider, the customer signs for his orders. The agent completes his suggestion by skillfully putting the question which leads to the order. He does not say, "Will you take the policy?" but, "Shall I make it for ten thousand?" The agent may also effectively put the question in some such

form as the following: "Now that you understand the nature of our policy, do you think your wife would be sufficiently protected by a policy of fifty thousand?"; "Realizing as you do the call which may reasonably be expected for the goods, do you think one car load will be sufficient to supply the demand?" When the customer has not yet decided to make the purchase his decision is sometimes forced by such suggestive questions as, "Shall I send it, or will you take it with you?"; "Shall I charge it, or do you prefer to pay cash?"; "At what hour would it be convenient to have it delivered at your office?" Unless these suggestive questions are put by the right person and at the right time they are absolutely worthless. When properly used they are most effective.

If in persuading men we wish to depend upon the working of suggestion we must not only disarm them of suspicion, but we must make response easy and suggest definitely the nature of the response and the time at which the act should take place. The degree to which we accomplish this is the measure of our skill in carrying suggestion to a happy conclusion.

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